The Nation.

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The Week.

THE President says in his message that "American legislation should conserve and defend American trade and the wages of American workmen," and then, a few sentences further on, expresses satisfaction because the McKinley tariff has not had the "prohibitory effect upon importations" imputed to it. If importations have not been lessened, while duties upon them have been raised, it necessarily follows that prices are higher than they were. The American people, including American workmen, are paying more for what they buy, therefore, than they paid before the McKinley Law went into effect. But it was the purpose of the law to have a "prohibitory effect upon importations," and by thus increasing the demand for American manufactured products to increase the wages of American workmen. Why does the President rejoice because this has not been accomplished? Even he has heard that prices have been raised because of the new tariff, but has he or any one else heard of *wages* being raised because of it? If so, will he or any one else give us the particulars? If wages have not been raised, while prices have, can it be said truthfully that the McKinley tariff "conserves and defends American wages"?

The report of the Secretary of the Treasury shows a probable surplus of current receipts over expenditures for the year ending June 30, 1891, of $52,000,000. Allowance is made in this estimate for a net loss of $9,000,000 in the receipts from customs duties, the repeal of the duty on raw sugar not taking place until the first of April. The increased allowance for pensions as compared with the previous year is $27,000,000, which seems to be rather under the mark. But there is not much doubt that the Treasury will start on the 1st of next July with a balance of $50,000,000. The estimated revenues for the year 1892 from ordinary sources are $373,000,000, and the expenditures, not including the sinking fund, $357,852,209. The sinking fund calls for $49,224,928, so that there is a deficiency of $34,000,000 in prospect at the end of the fiscal year 1892, which can only be made good out of the reserves left over by the previous Administration, plus the National Bank redemption fund. Exclusive of the sinking fund, the receipts are expected to be about $15,000,000 in excess of the revenues. That this is an optimistic estimate is made clear by the fact that only $36,676,000 is allowed for a full year's increase of pensions, whereas the Commissioner of Pensions calls for $33,000,000 as a deficiency on the present year. It will be remembered, too, that Senator Davis, Chairman of the Committee on Pensions, estimated the new call for pensions at $44,000,000 the first full year, while this was considered much too small by other members of the Committee. In fact, the Secretary's estimates on the subject of pensions are hardly intelligible.

There is a delightful passage in the Postmaster-General's report on what he calls "a delicate question," namely, whether inspectors' reports about postmasters and "other confidential papers" touching appointments and removals should be "accessible to persons more or less interested in special cases." Here is the more enjoyable part of Mr. Wanamaker's reflections:

> "I do not agree with your predecessor that these papers should be denied to a committee of the Senate; for, as I am informed, a request of this nature from a committee of the Senate was once denied by him. The Senate has a constitutional right to inquire about appointments. An investigating committee of the House deserves, as I beg to submit, a similar courtesy. The same would be true of a court of law. Perhaps it might be said to be the right, rather than the privilege, of the court of law to have the papers. Beyond this category of Senators and members, however, the confidential papers must not go. Rather must the Department, if necessary, suffer the odium of appearing to remove a person without cause. The confidential reasons which compel the Department to act must not be disclosed, first, because communities might in some instances be involved in strife and bitterness, and families might be subjected to disgrace and ruin."

That Wanamaker "does not agree" with Cleveland on a constitutional question is serious enough, but, before disagreeing with him, our pious friend should have informed himself fully about the controversy between Mr. Cleveland and the Senate. If he had done so, he would have discovered that the Senate has no constitutional right to ascertain the grounds on which the President nominates for office, any more than the President has the right to ascertain the grounds on which each Senator votes for confirmation, and that when the President refused to give his grounds, the Senate dropped the matter. He would have discovered, too, that the Senate did not make the inquiry for the purpose of improving the civil service, but avowedly for the purpose of proving that Cleveland was a hypocrite, and the Constitution does not provide for Senatorial examinations of the moral condition of the Presidential heart. Whether the President ought or ought not to make such papers public as a matter of duty to the country and to the civil service, is another question. We think he ought.

The Postmaster-General's notions of constitutionality, however, seem rather confused, for he calls "the constitutional right" of the Senate a "courtesy," which the House "deserves," as also courts of law. He is even willing to admit that a court of law may "have the right rather than the privilege" to demand the papers. But whenever a court of law wants the papers, it will not take Mr. Wanamaker's opinion on the matter of rights. It will send for them, on its own view of the matter, and, if he refuses to furnish them, will send him, good as he is, to the county jail. That he is in dead earnest about this question, however, and approaches it in the spirit of a martyr, is shown by his willingness, sooner than surrender the papers, to be suspected publicly of dismissing officers without cause — that is, without proper cause. Willingness to submit to suspicion of this kind, after all that has happened, sooner than do wrong, shows that in John Wanamaker Philadelphia and the Union have really one of "Plutarch's men." He has evidently the firmness of an old Roman ennobled by Christian motives, and is, taken altogether, the most amusing and impudent of contemporaneous humbugs.

Much has been made by Mr. McKinley's friends of the fact that he made an extraordinarily good run in his district, and came near overcoming the normal Democratic majority. Unfortunately for Mr. McKinley's reputation, however, it appears clear that intimidation was one of the elements employed to secure the large vote which was cast for him. Remarkable revelations have just been made by a citizens' committee at Massillon, Ohio. Russell & Co., manufacturers of that town, employ more than 600 men. The members of the firm are Republicans and warm friends of Mr. McKinley. Immediately after his defeat, charges were made of the revenge which they had taken upon some of their workmen who had supported the Democratic candidate, and a mass-meeting of citizens was held, which appointed a committee to investigate the matter. This committee consisted of a member of the State Senate, one of the clergymen of the place, and three other citizens, and they are unanimous in their report that the charges were well grounded. It appears that for years every position in the company's shops in which a man has any control over his fellows has been held by a Republican; that in the last campaign, as well as in previous ones, Republican foremen were active in electioneering in all parts of the shop at all hours of the day, and that bulletin boards were placarded with epithets denunciatory of Democratic candidates and principles; that, if Republican meetings were held at other points in the district, these foremen distributed the tickets advising Democrats that it would be to their interest to go; and that foremen have called the men of their departments together to advise them how to vote. Immediately after Mr. McKinley's defeat, between thirty and forty workmen who had voted against him were notified that their wages were to be cut down one-third; this notice of reduction being intended as a request to quit. Many of the men thus punished were among the oldest employees, having worked 7, 10, 15, 20, and even, in one case, 26 years, and they are perfectly respectable citizens.

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The only defence made by the firm was the complaint that the Democratic workmen thus punished had been offensive in the expression of their political views.

There is evidence coming from Paris that the Government of France will have very serious representations to make at Washington if this country perseveres in the attempt to require of French shippers of goods to the United States a written statement to our consuls of the cost of producing articles shipped by the French producers. Possibly France may not concern itself with American shippers overhauled in France by our consuls, but when Frenchmen are, under the McKinley Law, unduly nagged and worried within French territory, France will not stand mute. The acts complained of by France are done under the "Customs Administrative Law," which is quite as iniquitous as the McKinley Tariff Law, and with the latter should be instantly repealed. Each is incapable of amendment, so interlaced are its deviltries. Nobody denies that the United States can offer any conditions they please, consistent with existing treaties, to the importation of foreign goods, if the conditions and examinations are to be and are enforced in our own territory. France, however, denies that our executive officers can enforce *in France* all possible examinations of Frenchmen. The *place* of examination of shippers is the turning-point of the controversy. Our Tariff Law requires that an importation of goods sent hither from France by a French producer (who is not a *buyer* of them ready made) shall be accompanied by an invoice declaring the *market value in France*, and that the invoice must be *verified* by an American consul at the place where the shipment begins. Market value was formerly required, and only market value. But the McKinley administrative deviltry enacts that, as *evidence* of that market value, the American consuls in France shall, before a verification of the invoice, require the French shipper to disclose to them the details of the cost of production. France denies that, either by treaty or public law, American consuls in France can demand such facts from French shippers as a condition of verifying an invoice, or sending it forward to the port of destination of the merchandise. When a French shipper has declared his opinion of the market value of his shipment, he has done, says France, all that should be exacted of him *in France*. Would not the United States say the same were French consuls to endeavor thus to interrogate in Massachusetts our manufacturers?

American manufacturers who have no export trade, though they would like one, may take a hint from the present attitude of French manufacturers, who have a large foreign trade but are in danger of losing it. The rising tide of protectionism in France, with its proposal to lay taxes on raw materials, has alarmed the great manufacturers and exporters of Lyons, Bordeaux, Roubaix, Marseilles, and other industrial cities, and they have begun an agitation in defence of their own interests. In each of those cities a league or union has been formed to protest against the enactment of laws which will close factories and throw workingmen out of employment through making it impossible for French exporters to compete with England in foreign markets. Now these separate organizations have been merged into a national "Union for Free Raw Materials and the Defence of the Export Trade." This consolidation was effected in Paris on November 5, delegates being present from all the principal manufacturing centres. The aim is to present a united front in opposition to the proposed taxes on raw materials, in the name both of the French consumer and the French workingman. The agitation, however, is thought to have begun too late to stop the threatened mischief. It deserves to be noticed, together with the Swiss "League against Higher Prices for the Necessaries of Life," as a sign that the protectionist folly is not blinding all minds in Europe. The American people formed their corresponding league on November 4.

The full Congressional vote in New Jersey is as significant of what is going on in the public mind about the tariff as the votes of other States have been shown to be. In 1888 the Republicans elected four of the seven Congressmen, and had a majority of over 1,400 on the total Congressional vote. This year the Democrats have elected five of the seven Congressmen and have a majority of nearly 14,000 on the total Congressional vote. The total vote this year is, in round numbers, 243,000, against 290,000 in 1888. The Republican vote this year is over 31,000 smaller than in 1888, while the Democratic vote is less than 16,000 smaller. In other words, two-thirds of the total falling off of 47,000 votes from the vote in the Presidential year belongs to the Republicans. They have lost heavily in every one of the seven districts—nearly 6,000 votes in the First, nearly 5,000 in the Second, nearly 5,000 in the Third, nearly 4,000 in the Fourth, nearly 5,000 in the Fifth, over 4,000 in the Sixth, and over 3,000 in the Seventh. The First District contains Gloucester County, with large glass-manufacturing industries; the Second contains Trenton, with its iron and pottery industries; the Fifth contains Paterson, with its silk, iron, and other large industries; and the Sixth consists of the city of Newark, which is one of the largest manufacturing cities of the country. The great gains by the Democrats in all these districts furnish most significant evidence of the verdict of the laboring classes upon the McKinley Bill and McKinley prices, for in every one of these districts the Democrats have made large gains on their vote of the last "off year," namely, that of 1886. Their total vote this year is 128,617, while in 1886 it was only 98,562. Here is a total gain of over 30,000. The Republican total vote of 1886 was 105,468, and this year it is 114,808, a gain of only 9,000. The largest Democratic gains over 1886 have been made in the Third District, where the gain exceeds 6,000, and in the Sixth, or Newark, where it exceeds 10,000, being more than 23,000 this year, as against 13,000 in 1886.

The new Ballot Law of Vermont, which was approved on November 25, is an excellent application of the Australian system, being in all essential respects similar to the Massachusetts and Rhode Island laws, and the other most desirable laws thus far enacted. It provides for the use of exclusive official ballots and for the printing of the names of all candidates upon a single blanket ballot, the names to be grouped under the various offices to be filled at the election, and each name to be followed by the candidate's place of residence and his political designation. The voters are to indicate their choice by making an X after the name of the candidates for whom they wish to vote. There is no provision forbidding electioneering within the immediate vicinity of the polling-places, but it is forbidden to interfere with or endeavor to induce any voter to vote for any particular candidate inside the polling-place under penalty of $50 fine.

The enactment of this law in Vermont increases the number of States which have adopted reform election methods to fifteen. Not all of these are thoroughgoing reform measures, but all are steps in the right direction. The poorest laws are those of New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Michigan. The Michigan law, of which we have not hitherto given a synopsis, is in many respects unique. It provides, like the Connecticut law, for the printing of all ballots upon the same kind of paper, to be furnished by the Secretary of State, and requires that all ballots shall be uniform in size and appearance, with no distinguishing mark upon the outside. Each party can, however, have a vignette or device of its own choosing placed at the head of its list of candidates upon the face of the ballot. Ballots are printed by the State for regular party organizations only, there being no provision for nominations by petition, and are furnished in advance of the election. They are therefore distributed, as in Connecticut and New Jersey, in and out of the polling-places on election day. The voter is required to go into a booth to prepare his ballot, and must fold it in such a way that its contents cannot be seen. It was noticeable at the first trial of the law at the last election, that while the peddling of ballots about the polls was not forbidden, the managers of all political parties in many parts of the State, including some of the largest cities, put all the ballots in the booths, and allowed the voters to choose their own. The law worked to the satisfaction of all parties, and, whatever its shortcomings, secured for the first time a practically secret ballot.

Mr. Herbert Welsh says the critical condition of affairs in the Dakotas is due principally to the fact that both the Pine Ridge and the Cheyenne River Agencies are in the charge of new and inexperienced men, placed there not because of their expe-

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rience and knowledge, but as an outcome of spoils politics. "As to the Cheyenne River Agency," says Mr. Welsh, "the former agent, Dr. McChesney, who was one of the most capable men in the service, was recently removed against the most earnest protests of the Indian Rights Association. At the Pine Ridge Agency the former agent, Major Gallagher, was removed without our knowledge, so that it was not possible for us to act in the matter." Indians are, in many respects, like children in their management. When their confidence is once gained they can be easily controlled; but, placed in charge of persons they distrust, they are at once suspicious and obstinate. The "Messiah craze" appeals strongly to the Indians' imaginative nature, and an Indian can in such a case be persuaded that he is wrong only by a person in whose wisdom he has implicit confidence. Hence the misfortune of having two great agencies at this time in charge of men whom the Indians do not know, and whose displacement of their old friends, the former agents, is very likely to be in itself a cause of their distrust. If there should be an Indian outbreak in Dakota, with the loss of many lives, it might add a most impressive object-lesson of the heinous character of the Harrisonian spoils doctrine.

The fact is now coming to be confessed by the newspapers of Kansas and Nebraska that the western portions of those States are incapable of supporting a farming population—unless some system of irrigation shall be introduced. When the "boom" in those States was at its height a few years ago, settlers rushed into the regions in question, and for a while it appeared as though the rainfall might suffice to raise good crops. But for two or three years past the western part of Kansas has had almost no rain, and the settlers have been forced to abandon it, until now a Topeka journal does not hesitate to speak of "the desolate and arid lands which irrigation alone can render productive." The emigration has been so great that it has more than counterbalanced the immigration into the eastern and central parts of the State, and the total population, according to the recent Federal census and censuses taken by the State Board of Agriculture in previous years, is less in 1890 than in 1889, and was less in 1889 than in 1888. Nebraska has not suffered to the same extent, only because the western part of the State was not so generally settled; but the destitution in several counties this year is so great that an appeal for aid had to be made recently to the more prosperous regions of the State.

The Methodist churches throughout the country are voting on the question of admitting women as lay delegates to the General Conference of the denomination. The Burlington *Free Press* makes some interesting comments upon the results of the poll in Vermont. The church in Barton having voted unanimously in the affirmative, the Burlington newspaper remarks that this is the first instance of the kind that it has noticed in the State. As a general rule, it says, the question has been considered by very thinly attended gatherings, the votes have been as often or oftener in the negative than in the affirmative, and in all cases the vote has been absurdly out of proportion to the membership of the churches voting. These facts, in the opinion of the *Free Press*, "tend to show how very weak is the hold of what used to be known as the 'woman's rights' idea on the people of this State. One would naturally look for interest on this subject in the Methodist Church if anywhere, where the greatest liberty is given to the women, both in the matter of 'speaking in meeting,' and in taking an active interest and an active part in the management of church affairs generally. But apathy regarding the matter seems to be more marked here than elsewhere. In a word, it would seem that the women of the Methodist churches of the State do not care whether or not they are admitted to the General Conference of the Church." It is much the same way in regard to the question of voting in the State as in the Church. The hardest argument for the advocates of woman suffrage at the recent session of the Legislature to answer was the fact that very few women seemed to care anything about having the suffrage. "General Apathy," says the *Free Press*, "seems to be the officer in command of the women of the State just now in matters relating to an extension of their privilege in either Church or State."

An Iowa newspaper, the Keokuk *Gate City*, notes some instructive facts regarding the vote on the same question in a Western State. Interest in the matter would seem to be far livelier in Iowa than in Vermont, and the feeling much more one-sided, except among a certain class of Methodists. Thus the vote in a Burlington church showed a total of 166, all but 16 of which were in the affirmative; and a church in Mt. Pleasant cast 134 votes, of which all but 15 were in favor of admission, while in Sioux City and in many other places there was not a vote against the proposed change. The exception to this general rule is found among Methodist churches composed of people of foreign birth. For example, the Swedish Methodist church in Burlington cast only two votes for the women and fifty against, while the German Methodist Church in the same city was unanimously against the change.

A more discreditable document than Mr. Parnell's manifesto has not been issued by a public man in any country for many a day. In avoiding all mention of the real question—whether his continued leadership of his party will not, under existing circumstances, seriously injure the Home Rule cause—and talking at considerable length about something else, he adopts one of the worst tricks of "journalism," which may possibly be forgiven a man who is fighting for his life. But his revelation of his consultations with Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Morley looks like a piece of pure malignity, and will, of course, prevent any public man on the English side from ever entering into confidential relations with him again. In truth, it seems the desperate act of one who was indifferent to everything but some sort of vengeance on people who were annoying him. The English Liberal leaders, and especially the two we have named, have made great sacrifices, both political and personal, for the Irish cause. They have had literally to educate their own party in England not only into political sympathy with but into common humanity towards the Irish Catholics, and they have done it untiringly, unstintingly, and through much evil report. It was natural and proper that they should communicate to Mr. Parnell the full extent of their hopes and fears, and their full estimate of their powers, which naturally varied from month to month and almost from day to day. That he should now give it all to the world with a sneer, and with the deliberate purpose evidently of breaking up the alliance between the Irish Nationalists and the English Liberals, shows that the estimate of his character held by so many of his enemies was not wholly mistaken. He has done a base and treacherous thing—a false thing, in view of Mr. Gladstone's and Mr. Morley's denials—to save himself from the natural and inevitable consequence of a piece of deliberate folly.

The Irish cause has never, in all its long and dreary history, had so much need, not only of common sense, but American "horse sense," as at the present crisis, and we are glad to see there appears to be a sufficient supply of it among the members of the Irish Parliamentary party to prevent Parnell's inflicting on it the greatest of its many disasters. The great majority of the members refuse to follow him in his crazy course, and the delegates now in this country have sent a long despatch full of the wisdom which the occasion calls for, dissociating themselves from him. The Catholic clergy, too, have declared themselves against him, and his following in Parliament will probably drop at once to a score or so of those most dependent on him pecuniarily—for he is the chief custodian of the fund out of which the salaries of the poor men are paid. The folly of Parnell's course must in charity be ascribed to some failure of his mental powers. If he had promptly acquiesced in the view generally taken of the situation in which the judgment of the divorce court placed him, and withdrawn at once from the leadership of the party, if not from his seat in the House, there is little question that six months of retirement would have expiated his fault in the public eye sufficiently to enable him to reappear. People forgive sins such as his readily enough if not accompanied by gross duplicity or cruelty, and he was armed against too much English indignation by at least one notorious case of condonation on the part of the whole Tory and Liberal-Unionist party. It is the Nonconformists he had to fear, and he has, through his base defence, made forgiveness from them impossible, and doubtless greatly reduced the majority at the coming election, on which the Liberals had good reason to count.

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GAIN AND LOSS IN PUBLIC INDEBTEDNESS.

THE census bulletins already published give the amount of the entire public indebtedness, Federal, State, and local, except that of the school districts, townships, and smaller towns and villages. In 1880 the aggregate amount of the net indebtedness of these excepted places was $117,112,862. It is not possible to separate the amount of their debt in 1870 from that of the other municipalities and quasi-municipalities of the country. In the preparation of the following table, it has been arbitrarily estimated that their debt in 1870 was about $90,000,000. The figures published by the Census Office, it is distinctly stated, are merely preliminary, and are subject to revision.

Subject to the above-mentioned qualifications, the following table will give for 1870, 1880, and 1890 the net Federal, State, and local indebtedness, except that of school districts, townships, and the smaller towns and villages, together with the increase or decrease in each kind of indebtedness during each decade, and the percentage of such increase or decrease:

AMOUNT OF INDEBTEDNESS.

Nature of indebtedness.	1870.	1880.	1890.
Federal....	$2,331,169,956	$1,919,326,748	$923,376,119
State.....	352,866,698	226,597,594	132,336,639
Local.....	425,810,060	704,373,585	738,287,576
Total.....	3,109,846,714	2,850,297,927	1,794,000,384

INCREASE OR DECREASE—AMOUNT.

Nature of Indebtedness.	From 1870-1880.	From 1880-1890.	Percentage	
			From 1870 to '80.	From 1880 to '90.
Federal.	—$411,843,208	—$995,950,629	—17	—52
State....	—126,269,104	—94,260,905	—35	—42
Local...	+278,563,525	+33,913,991	+65	+5
Total...	—259,548,787	—1,056,297,543	—8	—37

The reduction in the aggregate amount of public indebtedness of all sorts has thus been more than four times as great during the last decade as it was during the decade extending from 1870 to 1880, and the fact that in ten years more than one thousand millions of the public debt have been paid off is a striking demonstration of the enormous and apparently constantly accelerating growth of wealth. The annual outlay for the payment of the principal of the debt, in fact, exceeds the total annual revenues of the Government during any year prior to 1863. It is more than twice as great as those revenues were in any year before 1853. The reduction during the decade was more than eight times as great as was the national debt at any time prior to the civil war, and about thirteen times as great as it was after Hamilton had carried through Congress the bill for the assumption of the State debts. It was about twice as great as was the total national debt of Great Britain when Hume affirmed that "the ruinous effects of it are now apparent and threaten the very existence of the nation," and twice as great as the sum Walpole declared would exceed the ability of England to stand under. It was more than sixteen times the amount of the English debt at the close of the seventeenth century, when that debt appeared to so competent an authority as Davenant so great that he asserted that the country could never flourish in trade or manufactures until the greater part of it was liquidated.

Of the total reduction, nine-tenths has taken place in the Federal debt, which is now less than one-half what it was ten years ago. The aggregate amount of State indebtedness has also during the decade been reduced nearly one-half. Unfortunately, some part of this reduction has been brought about either by absolute repudiation or by various sorts of partial repudiation, euphemistically styled scaling, readjusting, or the like. The genuine reductions by payment have nevertheless been considerable, and there are now, outside the South, no States whose net indebtedness is at all important, while there are six States absolutely without any bonded debt, and no less than eighteen in which the cash and funds on hand, according to the census returns, exceed the total combined amount of the bonded and floating indebtedness. It may be stated that in the above table the figures for the net State indebtedness in 1880 are those of the tenth census, and not those given by the bulletin of the eleventh census. There are a number of serious and largely unexplained differences between the figures given by this bulletin for the debts of many of the States in 1880 and those furnished by the census of that year.

The most interesting and most important portions of the statistics relating to indebtedness thus far made public are those which show the amount of local indebtedness. During the two decades from 1860 to 1880 the sum total of this indebtedness increased by leaps and bounds. It is probable that in 1860 it was not great, and yet when in 1870 it was first made the subject of census inquiry, it amounted, including that of the school districts, etc., to $515,810,060, and by 1880 this had risen to $821,486,447, an increase of 59 per cent. Public opinion took alarm none too soon, and, by constitutional provisions in many States requiring popular ratification of every new loan, or restricting the aggregate amount of indebtedness which a municipality might lawfully contract, to a certain percentage of the assessed valuation, attempts were made to prevent further reckless borrowing. The preliminary census figures seem to show that the efforts thus made have been measurably successful. It is true that there has been no reduction in the aggregate amount of the local indebtedness, but, on the other hand, the increase indicated is so small when compared with that of the previous decade (being relatively but one-twelfth as great) as to indicate a most important and satisfactory progress in the right direction. While our cities and towns are growing as rapidly as the census shows they are, it is inevitable that they will have to be large borrowers in order to supply themselves with the expensive necessaries of urban existence. If under such circumstances the aggregate amount borrowed but slightly exceeds the amount paid off, we are doubtless doing, if not as well as we might hope, or as well as we should if more honesty and intelligence and less politics and jobbery were found in our municipal boards, still quite as well as we have, under existing conditions, any reason to expect.

The reduction in the annual interest charge has doubtless been proportionately still greater than in the principal of the public indebtedness, although the information thus far published by the Census Office is not as complete with reference to the changes in the interest as it is with respect to the principal. It seems probable, however, that the annual outlay for interest on all kinds of public indebtedness is now between $60,000,000 and $70,000,000 less than it was ten years ago. This reduction is in itself more than eight times all the revenue received in any one year of Washington's Administration.

If attention be confined to what is ordinarily called public indebtedness, it thus appears that, both in the principal and the annual interest charge, there has been a very great reduction in the last decade. If by the charge of the public debt, however, we, as it would seem we should, include all the payments we shall be called upon to make in return for or in consequence of services rendered long since, the comparison with ten years ago is not so satisfactory. Pensions are nothing but annuities granted by the Government for past services, real or supposed, and as such are in fact part of the public debt. They are, moreover, a form of public indebtedness which cannot be made, as Government stocks can be, a convenience in the business and financial operations of the country. The expenditure for pensions in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1880, was $57,273,536, and in 1890 $106,493,890, an increase of $49,220,354; and yet in the expenditures for 1890 are not included any of the dependent pensions authorized by the act of June 27, 1890. Within three months after the passage of this act 460,000 claims for pensions under it had been filed. The increase from 1880 to 1891 in the expenditures for pensions will, therefore, exceed the amount by which the interest charge on the public debt—Federal, State, and local—has been reduced during the same time. In spite, therefore, of all the sacrifices which in the meantime have been made to reduce the indebtedness of the country, the annual outlay for debt and pensions combined will soon be greater than it was ten years ago.

DELIBERATIVE BODIES.

IT is not improbable that the present Speaker of the House of Representatives will cease to be a very influential person after his term of office has expired; but that is no reason for ignoring the service that he has done the country. That service might be described concretely as the same as that of the drunken temperance orator—furnishing a horrible warning; or, more scientifically, as exhibit-

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ing clearly the pernicious results of certain theories of government. Mr. Reed is not a hypocrite, and his frankness, although perhaps somewhat brutal, renders his principles unmistakable. They are summed up in the earnest expression of his gratitude that the body over which he presided was no longer a deliberative body, and it will be profitable to consider what is necessarily implied in this proposition.

The most obvious corollary is, that if there is to be no deliberation in Congress over the laws that are to be enacted there, deliberation must be had elsewhere. Laws are frequently not what they purport to be, but they are always the result of design. It is impossible to throw off a statute like an epigram, and most legislation requires an immense amount of preparation. In the view of the framers of our Constitution, this deliberation was the proper function of the representatives of the people. The *Federalist* is full of this theory, and its importance in the development of the English Constitution is well known. But if this is not the true theory, there is only one other that is possible in a popular government—the theory that a representative is a mere delegate, a mouthpiece of the *vox populi*; and that the people deliberate and employ their servants to frame the results of their deliberations into decrees. This is the theory which Mr. Reed has got hold of, and, as we have said, he has rendered an important service not only to the country, but also to political science, by showing experimentally how the theory works in practice.

For it cannot be denied that *a priori* the theory is defensible. The people, it is said, are the rulers; those who are called rulers have only to ascertain what is the popular will, and then carry it out. But when we come to practical considerations, we find that it is impossible in advance of action to ascertain the popular will, and impossible for the whole people to deliberate. From the very conditions of human existence no very great number of men can be gathered at one time to engage in deliberation, while the actual participants must be very few. Even here, the idea of representation reappears; the audience, by the clashing of swords upon shields, or some modern equivalent, showing what leader they approve. And again we must inquire whether this audience is itself representative of other audiences and of the people who have not formed a part of any audience. In short, unless every individual is asked his opinion of every legislative question, the principle of representation must be recognized; and if the regularly chosen representatives of the people do not deliberate, they must accept the deliberations of those persons whom they consider to be most representative.

The fatal difficulty with this course is that of all it requires the most deliberation. How is it possible, without the most careful investigation, to determine what men hold representative opinions? Is it the party managers, the political "bosses," the men who foreordain the nominations of caucuses, and construct the party platforms? Or is it the men of substance who furnish the sinews of war? These are shrewd men. They can tell what legislation will be satisfactory to the business interests which they represent, and they can report the feeling prevalent among their henchmen. But their views are often discordant, and they rather perplex than aid deliberation when they disagree. After their opinions have been ascertained, it is still necessary to consider whether these opinions will prove to be those of the people.

Moreover, deliberation of this kind must be secret. Discussion is transferred from the legislative chamber to the lobbies and committee-rooms, to hotels and bar-rooms and private apartments. While much valuable information is gathered in this way, it is unavoidably fragmentary, and frequently misleading. It lacks the corrective criticisms of debate, and, more than all, it is of a character to excite popular suspicion and jealousy. The American democracy is easy-going, but it is at the same time high-spirited. It indicates the main outlines of a policy that it will approve, but it is suspicious of all secret influences that affect details. If it sees that its representatives are framing legislation in secret, determining important matters without public discussion, registering the requirements of mysterious interests, its wrath is excited. It is a patient people, but there is one thing that its patience will not stand—the spectacle of its representatives entering into private arrangements under pretence of carrying out the popular will. This is in our Government the crime of *læsæ majestatis*.

No doubt Mr. Reed and his followers would laugh derisively at the mention of Pericles as an authority upon government, but there is some suggestiveness in his observation that the Athenians regarded as the great impediment to action not discussion, but the want of that knowledge which is gained by discussion preparatory to action. The appalling disorder that has befallen the Republican party is enough, at all events, to prove that action without public deliberation, even if in obedience to privately received intimations and manifestations of the popular will, is not a policy that is secure against miscarriage.

Action after prolonged deliberation, during which the representatives of the people sincerely try to ascertain what, in the light of reason and experience, appears to be for the good of the people, not concerning themselves with surreptitious inquiries as to what the people want, is a policy that is also not free from danger. But the danger of miscarriage in the latter case cannot, in the light of recent events, be regarded as so serious as in the former, and it has a great many advantages that the non-deliberative method has not. Among them is the possibility that the people may be convinced, being themselves rational beings, by the arguments which have convinced their representatives; in which case their representatives would enjoy the honorable pride of genuine leadership, a pleasure of a much higher order than the somewhat mercantile complacency over a cleverly anticipated popular want. When Mr. Cleveland reverted to the old theory of representative government, and declared in his celebrated tariff message what he thought the country needed, not what he thought the people wanted, Senator Edmunds is said to have exclaimed: "The Lord has delivered him into our hands!" But if there is any public man who can contemplate his standing with the people with more serene satisfaction than Mr. Cleveland to-day, his reflections and the reasons for them ought to be communicated to the world.

SENATOR HOAR'S EXPLANATIONS.

Senator Hoar has added his explanation of the Republican defeat to those of McKinley and Reed. "The three weeks' discussion of this great statute [the McKinley Bill]," he says, "was insufficient to convey to the American people an adequate understanding of its beneficent provisions." In this diagnosis, the nine months' discussion in Congress and the press that preceded the three weeks' discussion on the stump, counts for nothing. It is non-existent in the mind of the Massachusetts Senator. So, too, is the discussion which preceded the last session of Congress, and which took the form in his own State of a house-to-house canvass of the iron industries, leading to the presentation of the most formidable petition for lower duties that has been sent up since 1857. Of this petition, headed by ex-Gov. Ames, and bearing the signatures of such leading Republicans as Mr. Tobey and Mr. McFarlin, he has no recollection, or none that he thinks worthy of mention. The State was lost and the country was lost for want of time to prove to those iron-men, as well as others, that all industries would have been benefited by that "great statute," the McKinley Bill.

At this point the Senator enables us to take an inventory of his mental equipment as relates to the tariff question in general. He does not seem to be aware that we had a tariff anterior to the McKinley Bill, a tariff averaging 47 per cent. on dutiable goods, and reaching 58 per cent. on pig-iron, as to which Massachusetts had expressed some particular irritation. For all that we learn from him we might suppose that the country was on a free-trade basis, and was just embarking upon the experiment of a protective tariff. "There never was a bill framed," he says, "with more anxious, careful, conscientious study than the tariff of 1890." Indeed! But was not the tariff of 1883 framed with equally anxious, careful, and conscientious study? What was the matter with that tariff? What was the matter with the fourteen or fifteen other tariffs that the Republican party has passed since it came into power? We are not wholly without an answer to this question, and it is here that we discern the make-up of Senator Hoar's mind on tariffs in general. "It [the McKinley Bill] is framed," he goes on to say, "upon a principle which has been discussed from a time long before the foundation of the Government of the United States. This principle has gained steadily in public confidence with every discussion." Which means that

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in his view, if the first Congress, that of 1789, passed a protective tariff averaging 8½ per cent., all subsequent Congresses ought to add something to that figure, as pious travellers add stones to a cairn, in order to show their attachment to the principle. They ought to go right along piling up duties to the end of time. This is a conception of the protective theory that has not found its way into the text-books, although it has been frequently imputed to the advocates of the system by its adversaries. Stated shortly, it means that trade restrictions ought never to cease, but on the contrary ought to be multiplied and augmented continually. It is the Chinese-wall doctrine without any disguise or qualification.

This being Senator Hoar's frame of mind on the tariff question, why does he put so much stress on the "careful and conscientious study" of it? Why not make one job of it by passing a bill prohibiting the importation of anything that can be produced in this country? It is true that even this kind of a bill would leave room for dispute as to what things can and what things cannot be produced in this country. There would still be scope for "careful and conscientious study" to determine whether carpet-wool, for example, can be produced in this country or not, and here we should look for some fun in a joint debate between Mr. William Whitman and Mr. Columbus Delano, with Senator Hoar as an impartial judge inclining to support Delano on broad grounds. Looking strictly to the "principle which has been discussed from a long time before the foundation of the Government of the United States," we should expect him to solve all doubts in favor of the wool-growers. There is certainly no reason why the duties on iron ore and coal should not be made prohibitory at once, since it is acknowledged that we can and do produce these articles in abundance. It would save a deal of time and talk to adopt the Chinese wall forthwith, instead of approaching it by successive bills, as in the recent disastrous McKinley experiment.

That there may have been some errors of detail in the McKinley Bill, Senator Hoar allows; but these were unintentional. "Experience may *perhaps* show," he says doubtfully, "that this adjustment was in some particulars unwise. But it was made under the recommendation of an able, wise, and faithful committee, who had nothing but the general interest *at heart*." Here we have another chart of the Senator's phrenology. So long as your heart is in the right place, you are not to be blamed for shutting up half of the carpet-mills of the country, or for compelling the sewing women to pay three prices for pearl buttons, or for adding five cents to the cost of a dozen eggs and twenty-five cents to the price of a bushel of potatoes. Think, dear laboring man, think of McKinley's *motives* when you approach the ballot-box. He may have made a mistake when he put the potato tax on you, but his heart beat true all the same. He may have overdone it when he put a new tax on the tools of your trade, but his intentions were of the most excellent description. He may have erred in handing part of the contents of your dinner-pail over to some would-be worker of tin plate, but he meant well. Whatever he did, he is a good man. And so are all of *us*, who followed his lead and voted for his bill, without knowing very much about it. The terms of the Senator's endorsement of the bill show that he would have voted for any other with equal alacrity if convinced that the Committee had "the general interest *at heart*." So it comes about that if tin plate and eggs and potatoes had been put on the free list, instead of being taxed 50, 60, or 70 per cent., as the case may be, Senator Hoar would have been equally gratified, provided he were sure that McKinley was a good man. But surely the Senator must have had some doubts as to the state of McKinley's heart when the latter was changing so rapidly on the subject of hides.

Evidently Mr. Hoar took protection as a bolus when he was young, and never made any inquiries about it. Anything that comes to him with that label is *Thus saith the Lord*. He has spent his growing years on other subjects, and as to these he can give a reason, good or bad, when occasion calls. But as to the tariff he can give none except that he has confidence in the good intentions of the Committee. The State of Massachusetts has been studying the tariff question while Mr. Hoar has been studying the other things. While he has been satisfying himself of the rectitude of McKinley, the State has been considering the simpler problems of each man's right to his own earnings. As to the good intentions of the Committee, or of Mr. Hoar himself, for that matter, the State has voted practically that there is a hot place paved with such, or at all events that their intentions are of no account.

PARNELL—QUAY.

PARNELL'S address to his Parliamentary followers on Monday shows that he is determined to continue the work of demolishing his own reputation in the eyes of the civilized world. He is fighting hard against political extinction, and using every weapon that comes to hand. He abuses and ridicules all his late English allies, including Gladstone and Harcourt, as well as the ablest of his own followers, and is apparently determined to seek a "vindication" by some sort of popular vote in Ireland. His notion is, that if he can keep his men together in the House of Commons under his lead, he can, by holding, as he does hold, the balance of power between the two English parties, extract concessions from each in turn, which will eventually restore his old prestige. In order to attain this he is apparently willing to sacrifice utterly his reputation for honesty, fidelity, truthfulness, and fair dealing.

What is most interesting in his present attitude, however, is its resemblance to the old-fashioned American modes of getting a "vindication." That he has studied the system of our political malefactors with care and profit is plainly to be seen, and the likeness between his methods and Quay's is worth attention. For example, one of the first rules of this system is to avoid making an issue on the real question, and to keep up the defensive fight by starting new subjects of controversy. If the accusation, for instance, be fraud or falsehood, the practitioners answer by an attack on unchastity. If the charge is embezzlement, they show up the possible evils of free trade. If the charge is literary piracy, they show that some one of the accusers is also a pirate. In fact, they take the utmost pains to prevent any debate over the real facts of the case. All through the recent canvass in Pennsylvania it was impossible to engage any Republican in a discussion of the question whether Quay had or had not twice robbed the State Treasury. No matter how pointedly or circumstantially the charge was made, the answer of Quay's editors always was that you were attacking the American tariff in the interest of Great Britain. In truth, dexterity in this sort of evasion is actually taught to young men in the offices of party newspapers, and excites their admiration more than any other branch of the journalistic art. It cannot be practised successfully, however, as bald and simple evasion. It has to be enveloped in clouds of rhetoric and accompanied with prodigious noise. It does not do, when A is accused of lying and corruption, to answer simply that B has been unchaste and is a free-trader. The evasion has to be wrapped up in an essay on the enormous evils of unchastity, or in a narrative showing the terrible condition of the working classes in free-trade countries.

Parnell is, in truth, managing his affairs with the hand of a "trained journalist." There has really been little condemnation of him, everything considered, among English Liberal politicians on account of the O'Shea affair, bad as the evidence has shown that to be. His persistent duplicity in it has probably disgusted far more of them than his licentiousness. But what they say—what Mr. Gladstone has said, and Mr. Morley has said, and they all, in fact, have said—is that they do not undertake to sit in judgment on Parnell's private character, but that the judgment of the divorce court in the O'Shea case has, in their opinion, so prejudiced a large body of English voters against Parnell that they would consider the success of the Home-Rule cause, either in this Parliament or the next, impossible if he remained in the leadership of the Irish party. They therefore ask him to retire, at least until after the election. A proper human answer to this view from Parnell would be, either (1) that he had a good defence to O'Shea's charges, but did not produce it in court for such and such reasons; or (2) that although the O'Shea charge was true, it would not have the effect on English voters which Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Morley supposed; or (3) that even if it did have the effect on English Liberals that they anticipated, he had good reason to believe that he could extract Home Rule from the Tories. In any of these answers, however, the O'Shea case would have occupied the leading place.

Instead of this human answer, Parnell,

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like Quay, makes a journalistic answer. He has actually ruled the O'Shea case wholly out of the discussion as irrelevant. He made not the slightest mention of it in his manifesto. He forbade all allusion to it as chairman of the meeting of his Parliamentary followers. What he says is, that Mr. Gladstone and Mr. John Morley are traitors to the Irish cause; that both of them made him dishonorable proposals about Home Rule in private and confidential interviews, and that they undoubtedly intend to betray the Irish when they again come to legislate about Home Rule; and he intimates that English assistance is of no consequence to Home Rule. Why he did not produce these startling facts sooner, he does not explain. Nor does he account for his continuing to act with the Liberals so long without discovering their treachery; nor does he say whether he would have exposed them if Capt. O'Shea had not exposed him. In fact, he answers the charge of unchastity by a counter charge of deceit.

The coolness of his demeanor and his good humor and even jollity through all this trying crisis, on which all the correspondents dwell, constitute another striking point of resemblance to Quay. The worse Quay's situation in Pennsylvania seemed to be in the eyes of decent people, the more jovial he seemed to grow, and when final defeat came he went to Florida in high spirits. But it must be said for Quay that he had no such advisers or allies as Gladstone and John Morley to bid him get out of sight for a while, as the only way of allaying public disgust. He had to rely on his own instincts and experience for the proprieties of the occasion, and they taught him nothing except that when in trouble the best course is to brazen it out. Parnell has sinned against greater light, and has, therefore, done more damage. He has inflicted injury on the Irish cause, the full extent of which cannot now be estimated, but it is probably very great, if not irreparable. The discovery of his protracted intrigue gave the cause a severe blow, and he is now apparently bent on saving himself from one of the natural consequences, which he must have all along foreseen, by involving as many friends as possible in his own ruin.

PRISONS AND PRISONERS.

THE condition of prisoners has been in all ages so wretched as to call for the prayers and the labors of the benevolent, but it is only in recent years that the treatment of this unhappy class has become the subject of scientific study. John Howard and his followers compelled recognition of the fact that convicts were men, and therefore entitled to humane treatment; and though their aim was not to establish a science of penology, their agitation was the remote cause of that result. Recent as this science is, it has attained an unusual degree of perfection, and its principles have been already to a considerable extent adopted in practice. These principles are set forth with admirable clearness and succinctness in an essay by Mr. Eugene Smith, long Secretary of the Prison Association of New York, which is just published by the Society for Political Education.

Mr. Smith points out that the vindictive theory of punishment has been superseded by the view that the sole end of a penal system is the protection of society. This end, however, is not secured by the temporary incarceration of criminals, because it has been found by experience that after their discharge they may be more dangerous than before. The management of many prisons is such as to stimulate the criminal tendencies of their inmates. After some misunderstanding a substantial agreement has been reached upon the proposition that the reformation of the prisoner is the controlling aim of prison discipline. This is not upon any theory of paternalism or charitable agency, but because it is the best way of protecting society. The criminal is not to be reformed for his own sake, but for the sake of others. He has no special claim upon the Government, but by treating him as if he had, the common safety is promoted.

The term reformation, however, as applied to criminals, has a technical meaning. It does not mean, as most people not unnaturally suppose, a regeneration of the spiritual nature of the criminal. He may be as bad a man after he is reformed as before, but he is changed in one important respect: he will not violate the law. A story from the Elmira Reformatory throws more light upon the meaning of this term as well as upon the nature of the criminal than will be derived from much explanation. At an examination of the class in "Practical Ethics," the question was put, "Is it better to beg or to steal?" One prisoner replied: "A hundred years ago the question presented no difficulty; it would have been better then to beg than to steal. But *now*, when such great progress has been made in prison reform, it would be better to steal than to beg; for the thief, being imprisoned, would enjoy all the benefits of a reformatory training, which would enable him on his discharge to take care of himself so well that he would never afterwards have occasion either to beg or to steal."

On account of the existence of this distorted and morbid standard of morality among criminals, it is indispensable that the prison regimen should be severe. The disgrace of imprisonment is a sufficient deterrent to most men, but for the typical criminal this is not sufficient, and a painful discipline must be added. The convict must be made to dread the thought of a renewal of his sentence. Subject to this fundamental requirement, the general principle governing the treatment of convicts is laid down by Mr. Smith as follows: "Those methods of prison management are the best calculated to reform the prisoner which assimilate his condition to that of the free workman outside, which cultivate in him the same habits, appeal to the same motives, awaken the same ambitions, develop the same views of life, and subject him to the same temptations that belong to the free community of which he is fitted to become a member."

The convict, therefore, ought to be made to feel, with the honest man, that he must earn his living. The Government deprives him of his liberty, and it must, therefore, furnish him with the opportunity of labor. Only in this sense does it owe him any support. The convict, therefore, should be paid wages—low wages, if his labor is of little value, high wages if his labor justifies them. Out of these wages he should pay for his living, and if he earns more than will pay for the scanty fare of the prison, he should be permitted to accumulate the surplus. In this way the habit of industry and the habit of self-support are formed, and the fundamental maxim of political economy, that capital is the result of saving, is inculcated. Upon this point the generally admirable statute of the State of New York known as the Fassett Act is obnoxious to some criticism. That act provides that meritorious prisoners may receive ten per cent. of the earnings of the prison as compensation —compensation, apparently, for good behavior. While good conduct deserves recognition, it is undesirable that it should be paid for in money. Pecuniary recompense should be reserved for labor alone.

Another fundamental principle of prison science is "the individual treatment of convicts." The inmates of a prison cannot be reformed *en masse* by the application of the same influences. "As well might the patients in a general hospital, afflicted with divers diseases, be all cured by one universal and unbending regimen." It is obvious that this system of treatment implies a high order of ability on the part of the governors of prisons; no legislation will avail against weakness here. "The whole administration must be pervaded by the *personality* of a warden who shall possess keen insight, broad human sympathies, and a strong and masterful nature; and that personality must be brought into separate and direct contact with each prisoner."

If it be once admitted that a criminal should not be discharged from prison unless he is reformed, *i. e.*, unless a reasonable probability exists that upon his regaining liberty he will not violate the law, the indeterminate sentence is a logical necessity. It is absurd to turn loose upon society a man who will immediately renew his attacks upon it. "It is just as irrational," Mr. Smith observes, "to send a lunatic to an insane asylum for the predetermined period of two years as it is to sentence a felon to two years' imprisonment, decreeing in advance that when the two years are up both shall go scot free. Both should be confined until they have become so far *cured* that they may be set at large without danger to the community." Theoretically, therefore, there should be no predetermined limit to imprisonment for crime. But practically the New York statute goes as far as is at present desirable, in providing that the imprisonment shall not be shorter than the minimum term nor longer than the maximum term for which, under existing laws, the convict may be sentenced.

It is not encouraging, although under our system of nominating the judiciary by

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"halls" and party conventions, it is not surprising that no judge has yet pronounced an indeterminate sentence. On the other hand, it is very encouraging that the efforts of a small body of disinterested citizens to reform our prison system should, in the face of tremendous opposition, have attained so great success as is marked by the enactment of the Fassett Bill. This result is enough to convince all sincere reformers that no good cause is hopeless. Those who desire to learn how reason and experience may triumph over prejudice and ignorance, can do no better than study Mr. Smith's little tract. It might be well in case, as we hope, another edition should be required, to print with it the enlightened statute by which the penal system of New York is now regulated.

THE LEGAL CHARACTER OF AFRICAN EXPEDITIONS.

THE answer of Mr. Smith, the English Ministerial leader in the House of Commons, to the question, the other day, whether the Government would issue a commission of inquiry into the doings of Stanley and his officers in Africa, was a decided negative. He said the Government was "in no sense responsible for the selection of Stanley's staff," which means, of course, that the expedition was a private affair. It does not, indeed, seem to have been the expedition even of the East African Company. It was, in truth, the expedition of the Emin Relief Committee—a sort of philanthropic organization created in order to accomplish the rescue of Emin Pasha, who was supposed to be threatened with destruction by the Mahdi, and very anxious, therefore, to make his escape.

This has given a distinctly new turn to the controversy over "the rear-guard" and its troubles. The English public is at last waking up to the fact that the dispute concerns not simply Stanley and his officers, but the reputation of the English Government and people. The last issue of the *Spectator* gives expression most effectively to the thought that is now rising in the minds of most educated men over this miserable business, and to which Mr. Smith's answer will give increased impetus. It says:

"This kind of thing is not endurable, and must be stopped, even if Parliament has to interfere with enterprise by a strong restrictive law. We are not going to conquer Africa as the Spaniards conquered Peru, or to degrade the national reputation and impair the national character for the sake either of tropical trade or widely extended dominion. The English claim to rule the dark races consists in this, that their rule is at once lenient and vivifying; and their acts of invasion in Africa, if these two claims are to be disregarded, become nothing better than grand dacoities. We have dealt elsewhere with the horrible personalties now being exchanged among the African explorers and their friends; and though we see reason to believe that the two men most bespattered with charges were either in part innocent or morally irresponsible, we are none the less convinced that the general position assumed by explorers, and revealed in this disgraceful controversy, is perfectly intolerable. They obviously consider themselves released in Africa from all laws, and at liberty to act, either, as an insane officer did at Yambuya, with cruelty which shocked even negroes, or with the relentless but calculated and purposeful severity which we take Mr. Stanley to have displayed, or with the large humanity and tolerance which undoubtedly marked the irresolute Emin Pasha, and which appear, as far as we can read him, to have distinguished the conduct of Mr. Jephson, according, not to principle, but to individual temperament. They are all Czars, Ivans or Alexanders, as may happen, but all Czars. The men are 'released from law,' as the Romans used to say, and give sentences of death or torture, or protect or pardon suppliants at their own discretion, irresponsible either to civilized States or, in many instances, to their own inner consciences. They care nothing about opinion, for there is no opinion—at least, so they consider—in Africa; and they are themselves, as a rule, the reporters to Europe of their own deeds. That position is the position of slaveholders, which demoralizes even the best; and it is aggravated by the fact that the explorers are slaveholders whose slaves may rise at any moment, and are, till drilled into soldiers, always on the verge of that irritating form of mutiny, desertion *en masse*."

That is to say, at the close of the nineteenth century, and not the close of the seventeenth, when Christian missionaries are swarming all over the world, and no man can get more than a month in distance away from the strong arm of his own government, England allows private individuals to fit out expeditions which are, in the eye of public law, however praiseworthy their aims may be, distinctly piratical. The commander carries no commission from any lawful government; he selects his own subordinates, he enlists armed parties, and places them under military discipline, and then starts across the African continent, making private war on the way. He seizes from peaceable natives such supplies as he may need, takes to himself the power of life and death over everybody with whom he comes in contact, delegates this same power to such subordinates as he may detail on special duty, ravages the territory of such local potentates as may resist him, hangs, shoots, and flogs as many men as his occasions may seem to him to require, reports to nobody but himself, and then sells the report in open market, acknowledging no responsibility to anybody in particular for any of his doings.

It appears clearly enough in the rear-guard controversy that the subalterns have no idea of responsibility to anybody but their chief when they are dealing with the natives. The great guilt of Barttelot's atrocities seems to have lain in the fact that he was endangering the success of the expedition and disobeying his chief's orders, not that he was committing murder under the law of nations. The truth is that, from the legal point of view, no such expeditions as Stanley's have been permitted or fitted out since the days of the Buccaneers on the Spanish Main. As the *Spectator* well says, if these men had chartered a ship and simply ravaged the African coasts, they would, when they got home, have been brought to trial without any doubt for the slaughter which they acknowledged they had committed. The captain and owner of an English brig was tried in Australia some years ago for simply carrying a war party of natives against their enemies, as an accessory to murder. In fact, we feel little doubt that if an expedition like Stanley's had been on shipboard and had sent home accounts of its doings as it proceeded, a man-of-war would have been despatched for its capture. Why are things permitted on shore which would be peremptorily stopped on the sea?

This is the question which the British public is now beginning to ask itself, and with good reason. The question is asked with all the more force because we are nearly all afflicted just now with a mania for civilizing Africa. Every newspaper tells us that the great obstacle in the way of this beneficent work is the raids of the Arab slave-dealers. They carry on private war against the unfortunate natives. They kill the tribes who oppose them and burn their villages just as we do. True, the end they have in view is nefarious, and the end of our expeditions is beneficent. But what do the natives think or know about the difference? We do not carry off the people into slavery, but we act as if such was our design. How many of those who encountered Stanley's army fully understood that he was going to rescue Emin, and open up darkest Africa to the Bible, the sickle, and the ploughshare? What is more to the purpose, how many knew that he really had not as much authority in the eye of the law or usage of Christian nations to shoot one of his enemies or "give a dozen" to a mutineer, as Tippu Tib or any other slave-dealing chief? The whole business of exploration in Africa calls for a thorough overhauling at the hands of the Government, as the *Spectator* suggests. If the deeds which Stanley and his rear-guard have done in Africa are necessary, and have any wise purpose in view, then in God's name let them be done under a lawful flag, a public commission, and the articles of war, and make the perpetrators report to the constituted authorities of some civilized Power, or answer before some civilized tribunal for such of their acts as call for explanation or apology.

JEANNE D'ARC—THE RUSSIAN ALLIANCE.

PARIS, November 12, 1890.

THE French have at the present moment two fixed ideas—two things on the brain, if I may use the expression; one is Jeanne d'Arc, the other is the Russian alliance. The two things seem at first sight to be different, but they nevertheless are the expression of the same preoccupation, of the same thought—one of those thoughts which Sainte-Beuve well defined when he called them the thoughts *de derrière le cerveau* (from behind the brain).

The revival of Jeanne d'Arc's cult is a distinct form of patriotism: she saved France at the time of the English invasion; she took her young King to Reims and saw him crowned. She certainly is one of the most fascinating and poetical figures in history; but the French nation has not always looked upon her with the same eyes as it does now. Voltaire did not offend the national sentiment when he wrote 'La Pucelle.' The philosophers of the eighteenth century would certainly not have burned the "bonne Lorraine," but they looked upon her as an hysterical fanatic. The Roman Church has never been willing to beatify Jeanne d'Arc and to give her a place among the saints. The reasons for this opposition are obvious: Jeanne was condemned by an ecclesiastical tribunal, and, even after centuries, the Church has no desire to protest against the decisions of such a tribunal.

Jeanne d'Arc has now a statue in front of the Tuileries. This equestrian statue,

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which is not without merit, was made some years ago by Frémiet; the same sculptor has since made a sort of duplicate of it, with very slight changes, and has made a present of it to the birthplace of Jeanne d'Arc. Our greatest modern sculptor, Paul Dubois, who has achieved a world-wide reputation by his magnificent monument to Lamoricière (bearing at its four corners four statues, two of which, "Charity" and "Military Courage," are comparable to the best works of the Italian Renaissance), has been haunted for many years by a desire to make a Jeanne d'Arc. I have seen him at work at it in his studio, never contented with himself, always longing for something better. He has at last consented to exhibit his equestrian statue to the public. The horse is magnificent, full of life. Dubois has kept a horse in his stable, studied every bone in the horse's skeleton, and has succeeded in making a true horse, which, however, does not look like a common horse, and is in some degree idealized. As for Jeanne, she is in full armor, but her armor is so made that you feel all the movements and sinuosities of the body under it. She is sword in hand, and, with a most noble and graceful gesture, she makes a salute with her sword—keeping her head slightly backward, in an attitude of respect, and reining in her horse. These details will be all the more striking when the statue is placed in front of the Cathedral of Reims, which is its future site. Jeanne will then stand before the church in an attitude at the same time of triumph and of humility, having accomplished what she meant to accomplish, but feeling that her work was the work of God, and that she was only his instrument.

Lately we have had a Jeanne d'Arc on the stage; and who would and could play the rôle if not Sarah Bernhardt? Jules Barbier, the author of the play, told me that she was completely engrossed with her part, for a time at least; that she could talk and think of nothing else. Alas! Jeanne d'Arc had soon to give way to Cleopatra, and the versatile Sarah entered as easily into the skin (as we say in French) of the dissolute Queen of Egypt as she had done into that of the Maid of Orleans. I do not speak of a Jeanne d'Arc represented at the Hippodrome: it was a great show, and one of the attractions was the burning of Jeanne at a real stake, surrounded with real flames, by some sort of artifice which I don't pretend to explain.

You see that I was not mistaken when I said that Jeanne d'Arc has become the most popular historical figure of the time in the people's mind. She means revenge, deliverance of Alsace-Lorraine. Our English neighbors know very well that this instinctive movement is not directed against them; the French have never been more Anglomaniac than they are at the present moment. You meet almost as many Englishmen as you do Frenchmen in some quarters of Paris. Chantilly has become a second Newmarket; the races (which are run nearly every day in the year) have their public, which is Anglo-French; our literature is invaded by English expressions; all our clothes are English; even our ladies patronize English tailors. I know a man who has his linen washed in London! Our diplomats may keep up old quarrels about Egypt, write more or less angry notes about our influence in the valley of the Nile; the nation cares little for it, and it may be said that the traditional hostility towards England is completely on the wane.

The cult of Jeanne d'Arc is universal; you will find her equally worshipped by the royalist and by the republican. The royalist speaks in glowing terms of the girl who took her King to Reims and saw him crowned; the republican makes phrases about the peasant girl, the "bonne Lorraine," who saved the country when King and Princes could not do it. In fact, she embodies at present, and, it must be said, in the most touching form, the national instinct; she is the image of France—she gives us hope of a miraculous succor.

Russia represents the terrestrial hope; and it is for this reason that I said that the cult of Jeanne d'Arc and the faith in a Russian alliance are parts of the same sentiment. The diplomats will tell you that there is no treaty of alliance, such as exists between Prussia, Austria-Hungary, and Italy; that the Emperor of Russia cannot bind himself to a country whose Ministers are constantly changing; that, being the Czar Autocrat, he has no sympathy for republican institutions; that he is the most pacific of sovereigns, and that his policy is simply a masterly inactivity; that he is satisfied with reorganizing the administration, with improving the finances of his vast empire; that he is the most Russian of Russians, and means to have as little as possible to do with the affairs of the west of Europe—all such talk is vain, and people will respond that there is no need of written treaties when a community of interests demands united action. There is a widespread, a universal belief that if Russia were engaged in a war with the Powers of the Triple Alliance, France would immediately seize her opportunity and pounce upon Germany; that if France were obliged to draw the sword first, Russia could not allow the Powers of middle Europe to crush her, and would immediately attack Germany in the rear. This belief, instinctive, unreasoning, has entered into the mind of every man, woman, and child. The minor details of politics are neglected; the main point is never forgotten: France and Russia must, sooner or later, be engaged in a common struggle with Germany.

In this situation, the position of a Russian Ambassador becomes very pleasant—so pleasant that at times it becomes almost painful. In "Cinna," *Augustus* says to *Cinna*, after having pardoned him and reminded him of all the good things he had given him:

"Je t'en avais comblé; je t'en veux accabler."

We also sometimes seem to overpower the Russian Ambassador with our flatteries and courtesy. Baron Mohrenheim was sent to Paris at a difficult time; he had to replace Prince Orloff, who was a grand seigneur, universally popular, a handsome man, though he wore a band of black silk over one eye (everybody knew that he had been almost killed by sabre cuts at the siege of a Turkish town); he was a hero, a great favorite of his Emperor, and his immense fortune allowed him to live in splendid style. Baron Mohrenheim was Russian Minister at Copenhagen at the time of the marriage of the present Emperor to a Danish princess; he himself married a Danish lady, and her acquaintance with the Empress contributes to his advancement. He was sent to Paris at a time when Russia merely wished to be well informed of all the intricacies of French politics, and when republican institutions still seemed not to be assured. He was an intelligent witness; he knows French to perfection, and is well versed in all our literature, and he rapidly extended his acquaintance in the literary and even journalistic world.

The first symptoms of what may almost be called the Russian fever had not escaped him; Russian literature was becoming very popular: the names of Turgeneff, Tolstoi, Dostoievsky were in all mouths. This literary *engouement* was a clear indication, and he was not long in seizing it. His position in the diplomatic world soon became almost unique. A certain sort of courtesy is always, in a polite country like France, proffered to every member of the diplomatic body. Baron Mohrenheim became the object of a peculiar courtesy—he was *persona grata, persona gratissima.*

Not long ago his daughter married a French officer, M. de Sèze, who belongs to a good French family, and this event assumed extraordinary proportions. A love match (for the marriage was one of those which we call *mariages d'inclination*) was treated in our newspapers as a political event. People had a vision of the marriage of the French army with the Russian army, of a second triple alliance of France, Russia, and Denmark. Distinct allusion to the hoped-for Franco-Russian alliance was made at the Mairie, where the civil marriage took place before the religious marriage; and, by the by, it must be noted that our mayors, instead of celebrating the marriage, as the law requires, merely reading some articles of the *Code Civil*, have formed the habit—at least when they marry people whom they think important—of making speeches which they think eloquent. It did not use to be so, in old times, and this habit ought, in my opinion, to be deprecated, as you never know what a mayor may say, and the reading of the articles of the Code is quite sufficient.

I have only referred to this little episode in order to show the current of public opinion. It is no use to deny it: we are determined to be friends with Russia, whether the Russians are demonstrative or not. We have no doubts on the subject of their sentiments; we have forgotten Poland and the Poles, and don't mean ever to remember them. We try to be as anti-Semitic as the Russians themselves; we console ourselves for all our woes with the idea that some day Russia and France together will dictate terms to the world in arms. I do not discuss this state of things, I note it; for in politics, as in science, you must deal first with facts.

ENGLISH TALK AND FRENCH WORK.

LONDON, November 12, 1890.

THE National Association for the Advancement of Art and its Application to Industry has just held its third annual Congress at Birmingham. More remarkable than its proceedings has been the complete indifference of the general public. But one or two men of note, or notoriety, joined in this year's discussion and speechmaking; there were no socialist artists, except Mr. Holliday, who kept in the background, to give the meetings that element of sensation which has heretofore distinguished them; there was no attraction such as Mr. Alfred Gilbert's pleading of Mr. Stirling Lee's case proved two years ago at Liverpool. As a natural consequence, the Congress has been all but ignored by the press. The *Times*, of course, printed a report, and architectural papers have found space for matter of technical interest to their readers, but most of the other dailies and weeklies have been content to dispose of the whole performance in a short paragraph. And, finally, it has been asked whether, after all, there is any use in holding such meetings at so short an interval as a year.

Had the Congress been one of jockeys or publicans, half the country would have rushed to Birmingham. But still the prevailing apathy is due not solely to British indifference to art, but in a measure to the Association itself.

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For its special subject this year was the art education of the people at large, and therefore one that concerns every payer of rates and taxes. The South Kensington and all the schools run by the Science and Art Department are State-supported; many others throughout the country are municipal institutions. Almost every good citizen is more sensitive to a demand upon his purse than to an appeal to his æsthetic sense, and hence one might have thought the discussion of that education for which the public has to pay would have secured at least its attention. But the truth is, the members of the Association in the treatment of their problem have added the crime of incompetency to that of dulness. Beyond platitudes few seem able to go. Again, this year, we have heard of the brutalizing influence upon the workman of "lines of ugly, undecorated, unpicturesque buildings, cubes of glass and iron for shops, hideous squalid rows of brick boxes for houses"; again we have been reminded of the "soulless character of machine work" and the moral degradation wrought by the "miserable sky sign," or bill-poster. We have heard the old story of the beauty of the artisan's life in the golden days of Italy, and of the superiority of the Japanese system of apprenticeship. The names of the great Renaissance designers have been quoted with the usual parade of knowledge; the artistic foibles of the modern lover of blue china have been laughed at with the usual laugh of pity.

Even when the subject was approached in more serious fashion, there was no genuine effort to treat it sensibly or practically. No sooner had Mr. Rathbone, a modern Liverpool version of the Medicean art patron, placed all his hopes in South Kensington, of which he said we had every reason to be proud, than Mr. Hodgson, the President, who is known to a few, perhaps, as R. A., to none as painter, denounced South Kensington and all its ways. No sooner had Mr. Orrock repeated his favorite abuse of the National Gallery for its partiality to "golden-gloried, squint-eyed, triangular Byzantine saints," than Mr. Conway declared such talk "absolute folly." The one man who really pointed out an easy remedy for existing difficulties was Mr. Brett, R. A., whose simple and ingenious solution was the doing away with all art education. Technical education in the sense of practical training by artists, he asserted, was not necessary; it has already done more harm than good; and, anyhow, if it were wanted, it could not now be had. The only practical business of the Congress was the report of a visit to a school of jewelry lately established in Birmingham. I regret that I myself could not go to see it, for, if report is to be trusted, it more nearly realizes the ideal of a good technical school than anything of the kind yet started in England.

The failure of the Congress to cope with its subject is all the more deplorable since the need of good technical education in this country is so great. But few doubt the necessity of technical schools, save Mr. Brett; few agree with Mr. Rathbone that those in existence are satisfactory. The fact that a commission, of which this very Mr. Rathbone was a member, was appointed to inquire into the French system of popular instruction in art, shows that Englishmen begin to realize the fallacy of the South Kensington creed, that all art is theory to be learned by passing different grade examinations; the absurdity of Mr. Morris's doctrine that all art is play; and the inefficiency of polytechnic and people's-palace methods, which give chief prominence to the mechanical side of work, and which have brought down upon them the derision of even Toynbee-Hall "love-workers." The results of its inquiry, however, the Commission does not seem willing to share with the public, though Mr. Rathbone has admitted that the French method of instruction in schools of decorative art appears admirably adapted to form the good decorative artisans who are in demand, rather than the indifferent artists who, thanks to South Kensington, are already a drug in the English market. But it remains to be seen whether the Commission has grasped the real reason for the superiority of the French school. This it could not have failed to do had its members visited none other but the École du Livre, opened very recently in Paris, but destined to become famous before many months have passed. Apparently, the Commissioners, together with all other Englishmen and most Americans, are still ignorant of its existence, and yet it is a perfect model of what a technical school, giving both artistic and mechanical training, ought to be. It furnishes the very best solution of the problem which at the Birmingham meetings was left unsolved.

While in all art matters Englishmen talk and make a great noise, Frenchmen hold their peace and go actively to work. The École du Livre came into being unhelped by art congresses or the liberality of city companies eager to curry favor with a suspicious public, or of individual philanthropists with bank accounts larger than their art knowledge. It needed no sensational novel to give it a start, no fashionable fad to support it. It was founded by the city of Paris at the instigation of M. Hovelacque, well known in the French political as in the scientific world, and after M. Magnuski, its present manager, had devoted years of study and research to the subject, travelling to every European country except England, where he knew he should find little or nothing to learn, and examining above all the municipal typographical school of Barcelona, the wonderful photo-engraving school of Vienna, and the Plantin Museum at Antwerp. As the name implies, the object of the École du Livre is to instruct pupils in everything that relates to the making of books, from the casting of type to the drawing of illustrations. Intended for boys from the age of twelve, it does not neglect their scholastic education, but continues this from the point where they left off at the primary schools. However, even here the main object of the institution is not forgotten, everything being done to make the instruction in science and letters increase interest in the profession or trade which pupils are ultimately to adopt. These classes, while due attention is paid to them, are subordinated to the more essential studies—chemistry to its practical application by engraver or photographer, for example, general history to the particular history of art and printing, and so on with all other branches; the school is meant to turn out intelligent and well-educated workmen, and not clerks or literary hacks.

These essential studies are seventeen in all, without counting subdivisions. The principal are type-founding, type-setting, and printing, the workrooms being supplied with every possible necessity which the practical printer would require; engraving, lithography, and photography, now so important in reproduction (and not only are pupils trained in the use of the necessary tools for these arts, but also in the necessary chemical and mechanical processes); modelling and drawing, artistic as well as geometrical—for though artisans rather than artists in the usual sense of the word are to be developed, the illustrator will have every opportunity to perfect himself; and book-binding in its highest and simplest forms. In fact, all the many arts and industries exercised in the making of a book, with the exception of the manufacture of paper, are actively represented.

Not only this; there are workshops in which once every fifteen days the boys spend three hours in acquiring the use of tools and learning something of carpentering and practical mechanics, not that they may become mechanics any more than artists or scholars, but that they may understand their own mechanical needs—that they may be able to use the chisel or the hammer, should an emergency arise. While still more importance is given to the artistic—theoretic if you choose—side of the bookmaker's training, the boy who is to become printer or engraver, type-founder or compositor, is in every possible way to be reminded that his special work is not a mere trade, but an art. Already a museum has been founded in the school; it is to contain examples of everything connected with books and the making of them—histories and handbooks of the art of printing, as well as beautiful specimens of the printer's work both past and present, so that the latter-day printer can learn something of the possible beauty of type and page; old and new presses, matrices and casts to help the inventor; drawings and engravings and lithographs by the masters in these arts. In a certain way, of course, no new museum can pretend to rival the wonderful Plantin Museum in Antwerp; but for merely practical purposes that attached to the school hopes eventually to surpass it. This is a brief outline of the scope of the École du Livre.

Its great advantage over the average technical school is easily seen. The pupil will acquire not simply a mechanical knowledge of his trade (all that can, as a rule, be obtained in polytechnics), but a scientific and artistic understanding of it as well. It is true that no man can be taught to be an artist. Thousands take lessons in drawing; the Vierges and Abbeys are the exception. We have to-day a multitude of wood-engravers, but the Kruells and Coles are in the minority. But a right artistic feeling, an appreciation of what is good in everything pertaining to his trade, is a distinct gain even to the man who finds he cannot engrave on wood, and takes instead to preparing the block for the engraver; to the man who realizes that he cannot draw, and devotes himself, therefore, to the mechanical reproduction of the draughtsman's work. And in the same manner, the lithographer or photo-engraver may not want to prepare his own inks and acids, but it is to his own interest to be able to do so in time of need; the compositor or printer may not make his own press or tools, but he, and his employer also, can but profit by his ability, in case of accident, to repair them himself. The minor importance attached to the manufacture of tools and appliances is shown by the very small portion of time set aside for the purpose; the value ascribed to artistic training is manifested in the time, care, and money expended upon the Museum.

The first year, pupils pass through all the workshops and studies; they are then distributed, each according to the aptitude he has shown in the various departments, this distribution being managed by the directors of the school. A boy, instead of having no choice, and being forced to devote himself to engraving, printing, or illustration from the first, can test his talents for each; his ultimate profession, or trade, thus depending upon his own desires and inclinations. It is worth noting that this is really the scheme suggested by a well-known

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American illustrator, before the school was opened, in an article in the *Contemporary Review* last spring—a suggestion which was laughed to scorn as visionary and impracticable by the proprietor of the *Graphic*, who has himself started a school of illustration after his own narrow and primarily commercial ideas, which so far has borne but indifferent fruit even as an economic feeder for his own paper.

A few other facts in connection with the École du Livre, though of less significance in the present consideration, are of no less interest. In the first place, it is a full day-school for French boys residing in Paris, their admission depending upon their success in passing certain competitive examinations. The hours are from eight in the morning until six in the evening, and the dinner and *goûter*, or afternoon lunch, for the boys are as free as their classes; this arrangement having been made from wholly matter-of-fact motives, *i. e.*, to keep the boys on the premises and to save time, and without any of the hysterical socialism which characterized the London School Board's advocacy of free meals. The appointment of professors was also the result of examinations, the competitors having themselves named their jury. Some of the most eminent men in their respective professions, Palmaker, Demangeat, Mouchon, for instance, were among the successful candidates. To show how thoroughly the well-being of pupils is studied, I cannot but mention that the course of instruction includes gymnastics and military exercises. There are night classes for men. An enormous building is now being put up in the Rue Vauquelin for the school, which at present is occupying temporary premises near the Panthéon. Already its advantages have been well appreciated: only 100 pupils could be admitted its first year; there were over 300 applications.

Of course, the Paris École du Livre has nothing to do with the arts of design in their application to household decoration; but it can at least show how these also could be grouped together, and how instruction in them could be made at once mechanical and artistic. The technical school is needed to-day to counteract the narrowing influence of modern methods of work, when what used to be a task for one man is divided among many, and the individual workman spends years in producing over and over again an infinitesimal part of some great whole. Thus the man who goes into a machine-shop may devote his life to making cylinders, and yet never know how to make a piston-rod or a boiler. The artisan from the École du Livre would probably pass all his years either at the compositor's desk or the press, either engraving on wood or binding books, for even the socialist or fourteenth-century maniac cannot get rid of the modern exigencies of work; but there is no doubt that even if he were but of average ability, he would work with an intelligence and an appreciation of everything relating to his trade not often found in the ordinary printer's apprentice. This intelligence is exactly what is needed in every modern industry. And so long as industrial conditions remain unchanged, only by the establishment of schools upon the same basis can it be developed. It is not enough to master the tools of a trade; they should be used with clear and intelligent understanding of their scientific and artistic relations. When this fact is recognized in England, and not before, will the problem of technical education be satisfactorily disposed of. Art congresses held every year, or every month, will never accomplish what has been quietly done by M. Magnuski and the authorities of Paris and the Department of the Seine.

Correspondence.

THE INDIAN MESSIAH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The recent excitement at the Sioux agencies on account of the "Ghost" or "Messiah" dances must have become a matter of grave consideration to every reflecting mind within our boundaries. The settler seeking for lands upon which to plant his home; the capitalist on the look-out for new investments; and the taxpayer who will be called upon to foot the bill for the hurried massing of troops or the accumulation of supplies at the points supposed to be menaced by the concentration of excited dancers, will all feel a very natural desire to know what it all means. There have been numerous reasons assigned for the holding of the Messiah dance, but to none of them do I care to refer in this letter, which is written merely to call your attention to the immense influence still exerted upon the minds of the aborigines by the medicine-men, and to start the inquiry, Are there no means by which such influence can be lessened or destroyed?

The medicine-man of the American tribes is not the fraud and charlatan many people affect to consider him; he is, indeed, the repository of all the lore of the savage, the possessor of knowledge, not of the present world alone, but of the world to come as well. At any moment he can commune with the spirits of the departed; he can turn himself into any animal at will; all diseases are subject to his incantations; to him the enemy must yield on the war-path; without the potent aid of his drum and rattle and song no hunt is undertaken; from the cradle to the grave the destinies of the tribe are subject to his whim.

I could fortify my own observations with the remarks of such men as Sahagun, Landa, Boscana, and others who passed their lives among the tribes to the south of us, and who recognized the fact that the life of the Indian rested upon his religion, and that the medicine-man was the one individual in the tribe whose actions and motives must be understood and frustrated. But nothing that I could say, nothing that any one could say, would change the national indifference to all that relates to the inner life of our interesting savages. Well did Francis Parkman say that Spanish civilization crushed the Indian, English civilization *ignored* and *despised* him, French civilization embraced him. We know very little, if any, more about our Indians to-day than the Dutch did in New York when, on account of a senseless scare, they massacred a lot of peaceable Indians near Du Pauw's Ferry several centuries ago.

These medicine-men, doctors, priests, or wise men—by whatever name they may be called—are of great importance to the aborigines. If a horse has been stolen, they consult the medicine-man; if a raid has been threatened by a hostile band, the medicine-man can sing and prevent it; have the rains failed, the medicine-man can make more; has scarlet fever carried off any of the children, has whooping-cough swept down upon young and old, has the measles seized upon infant boys and girls, the medicine-man knows the song, the charm, the amount of singing and bathing and painting and dancing requisite for driving them away—or, if his incantations cannot drive them away, then he can point out the wrinkled old crone who has rendered them all abortive, and whose death must expiate the crime of being a witch. He can talk in the depths of his stomach, he knows all the tricks of jugglery similar to those at which the heathen priests of Rome laughed in their sleeves in the first years of the Christian dispensation; he knows everything.

We may shrug our shoulders and talk about quackery and lament the superstition of deluded men and women and children, but that will not bring the problem any nearer solution. We must break down the power of the medicine-men, and no effort is too great or too small to effect this. We must do just as the French were obliged to do with their tribes in Algeria, when they sent Houdin, the wizard, to work among them, and show that the medicine-men of the French could do more even than those of the Kabyles boasted of being able to do. Such a thing has already been done with excellent results among the Sioux themselves at their Sun Dance, in 1881, but as it was done by a volunteer and not under Government auspices, perhaps the experiment did not meet with the fullest success. There was a strolling "magician" who asked me to allow him to go with me to the Sun Dance at that time, as he thought it would do the Sioux good to see what a white "medicine-man" was capable of performing. It is hardly worth while to say that when the Sioux warriors saw their biggest medicine-men smacked with full force on one cheek and a ten-dollar gold piece knocked out of the other—or saw a great warrior, like "Little Big Man," wrenched violently by the nose and another gold piece pulled out of that important organ—they were amazed, and began asking themselves the question, Why couldn't their medicine-men do the same and make all the tribe rich?

The remedy suggests itself that we should take up the whole matter of the medicine-men with earnestness and intelligence, and do our utmost to remedy the mental condition which permits their existence, whether as a premeditated or an unintentional menace to the frontier. At Carlisle and Hampton there should be introduced an elementary course which, if it did no more, should give an inkling of the advances made in electricity, chemistry, the use of the solar spectrum, microscope, telescope, and other instruments, the power of steam, and other forces which the white man has harnessed to do his bidding. For the more capable scholars, there should be a supplementary course in rudimentary therapeutics, or household medicine, so as to render them independent of the medicine-men of their own tribe. When a scholar returns from one of our Indian schools, he at present finds himself instructed in some handicraft, and able to read and write pretty well, but he is still no match for the vaunted pretensions of the medicine-men, who leave to him the knowledge of the material world, but retain for themselves the mysteries of the supernatural.

Wherever the tribe is found to be so deeply rooted in its old ideas that its members will insist upon sacrificing chickens, sheep, and horses upon the death of great chiefs or medicine-men, or upon the appearance of epidemics,* let care be taken to supply them with little figures of paper representing such animals, and they will soon learn to regard the symbol to be of as much value sacrificially as the live creature, and very soon the symbol itself will disappear; but, whether it does or not, the In-

* When an epidemic of scarlet fever proved fatal to many of the Apache children some years ago, the medicine-men advised that sacrifices be made over the graves, and not less than two thousand sheep were killed by the infatuated survivors.

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dian will still hold his property and be on the road to wealth, which means conservatism, peace, and prosperity. The use of symbolic or substitutive figures in sacrifice has prevailed, and does still prevail, in many parts of the world—among Chinese, Thibetans, Mongols, negroes, and others. The Abbé Huc gave a very interesting description of what he saw of this sort in the snow-clad peaks of the Himalayas in 1844.—Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

JOHN G. BOURKE,
Captain Third Cavalry, U. S. A.

NOVEMBER 28, 1890.

A HOUSE DIVIDED AGAINST ITSELF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Within twenty-four hours of each other two pamphlets have reached my table from the Department of Agriculture—the Second Annual Report of Secretary Rusk and the Statistician's Report on the Yield of Crops per Acre.

The Secretary deems it his first duty "to congratulate you [the President] and the country at large upon the generally improved outlook in agricultural matters." After referring to the agricultural depression at the opening of the Harrison Administration and the attention given to the matter by Congress, he announces with fervid eloquence that "The cloud which seemed to rest gloomily upon American agriculture has been lightened, while the wise, economic legislation already secured holds out still brighter promise for the future." He then gives a comparative table showing the increase in price of a number of agricultural products, which he attributes largely to the increased tariff rates recommended in a former report.

So much for the Secretary. I open the other pamphlet, and am told on the very first page that the average yield of corn for the current year is the lowest ever reported, except in 1881, and that the yield in 1889, the year chosen by the Secretary for comparison, *was nearly one half larger*. The shortage for this year, it is said, is principally "in the corn-surplus States." Reports from the corn-growing States tell the disastrous story in detail. In one county the crop has suffered "all possible drawbacks"; in another are "half-filled ears, soft and unmerchantable"; in another, "damaged by excessive rains"; elsewhere "by midsummer drought"; elsewhere, "by frost"; elsewhere, "by worms"; here, "by hot winds"; there, "by hailstorms in August," etc., etc., for almost five dreary pages.

We turn to the report on potatoes, and find the lowest average, with two exceptions, ever reported, with an acreage so small as to make the actual supply per capita "smaller than in any recent year." These facts, in the opinion of the statistician, "amply warrant the advance in prices now ruling in all markets." He thinks, also, that the recent change in customs duties may check the large importation which these facts would prognosticate; which means, thanks to McKinley, that the poor will go hungry for potatoes, their staple dish, with no gain, either, to the masses of the farmers who have none to sell. The mind of the thinking man will go back to the time of the Corn-Law agitation, and draw a few interesting conclusions.

But to return to the statistician: "The season has been the worst for fruit that this Department has ever reported"; tobacco shows "a return somewhat below the average for the last decade"; buckwheat is lower than last year, and sorghum "reports a poor yield" in "its favored region." For hay, "the season was in the main favorable," while of cane-sugar alone it is said that "the crop will be a large one."

Is it simply "the irony of fate" that the Secretary's Report should be followed so closely by so crushing a refutation from one of his own subordinates? Or is it a terrible scheme against the "American system," concocted by the fiendish emissaries of the Cobden Club? Has it come to this, that a part of an Administration supposed to be devoted to the most rock-ribbed protectionism ever known has been bribed by British gold to betray American institutions? A Congressional investigation of the Department of Agriculture should be moved by McKinley, seconded by Cannon, and passed by the Speaker on the very first day of the approaching session.

AGRICOLA.

NOVEMBER 28, 1890.

MORE MISUNDERSTANDING OF THE TARIFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The country weekly press is still copying the report of the interview with Mr. Chauncey M. Depew sent out by the Associated Press on the day after the recent election. Mr. Depew endeavored to explain the causes of the political cyclone, and, as usual, had a little story to relate, but his story evidences that he is only familiar with the title of the McKinley Bill and not with its contents.

He tells us that, "all over the country, prices are going up or going to go up because of the McKinley Bill, and generally on articles which were not affected by that measure." Now comes the story: Some friends of his went to New York to buy a piano, and were told that they had better buy one at once, as pianos were going to increase $100 in price because of the McKinley Bill, "*though as a matter of fact pianos were not in the new tariff.*" Mr. Depew has probably never read or heard of the famous section 215 of the new law, which reads: "Manufactures, articles, or wares, not specially enumerated or provided for in this act, composed wholly or in part of iron, steel, lead, copper, nickel, zinc, gold, silver, platinum, aluminum, or any other metal, and whether partly or wholly manufactured, 45 per cent. ad valorem." The fact that one very seldom hears of any other pianos but those of American make does not correct Mr. Depew's error.

I notice a request by Mr. Thos. W. Smith in last week's *Nation* for the names of Republican firms announcing the rise in prices since October 6. It would be easy to fill a column with names. I shall only state that the Central Stamping Co. of New York, the largest manufacturers of tinware in the world, whose president is an ardent Republican and protectionist, has repeatedly advanced its prices since October 6, so that its present schedule is more than 40 per cent. higher than it was before the Tariff Law was passed.

Apropos of Mr. Smith's inquiry concerning pearl buttons. A salesman recently told a retail merchant, evidently a "dyed-in-the-wool" Republican, that next season certain kinds of over-shirts used by workingmen and farmers would have vegetable-ivory buttons in place of pearl buttons as heretofore. "Don't let me hear any more of that nonsense," was the reply; "if they don't like the buttons, let them do without the shirts." S.

ST. PAUL, MINN., November 22, 1890.

A PROBLEM IN McKINLEYISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: After reading your remarks on the "Republicans and Science" in No. 1325, I am reminded of a proverb which provides for the giving of his due to the power not ourselves which does not make for righteousness; his name being excluded from respectable journals. The McKinley Bill, for some reason or other, has helped science by allowing books published in languages other than English to be imported without tax. Why was this provision made? If your remarks are correct, there could have been no intentional provision for poor scholars. Two solutions occur to me, but both may be incorrect. Perhaps the American language is to be protected from the English, so that we may build up a language of our own. This cannot be adequate, for there is no money to be made in manufacturing an American language. But why cannot we see a bid for the Chinese and Italian votes here? Will not the un-Americanized foreigner see a delicate compliment to his native land in this provision? Who can tell or who can explain? M.

MIAMI UNIVERSITY, November 22, 1890.

PARTISAN USE OF CENSUS EMPLOYEES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: That the appointments of census-enumerators were made by Republican politicians for the benefit of the Republican party, is of course generally understood; but the shameless way in which these men, while doing census work, were also required to do party work, is perhaps not so well known. I am informed by men high in Republican councils that the State of Indiana was polled for the Republican State Central Committee by the census-enumerators when they took the census. Each one carried a special polling-book, and he was nominated by the chairman of the county committee with especial reference to that work, "though, of course, good men were always named." Presumably this was done in all the States, but I am sure only with regard to this one. This poll of the States at Government expense, one would think, should have lessened somewhat the need for assessments of Government officials.

In another case that has come to my knowledge, the use of the public funds was even more direct. A subordinate officer in the Census Bureau at Washington, who did not feel able to pay the expenses of a trip of 2,000 miles or more, home and back, to vote, was assigned work in the field and given tickets, properly enough, at the expense of the Government, to his new field of labor. He was expected to stop on his way thither and vote, and did so. To enable him to do this, however, the route followed in going to his new position was no more direct than to go from Washington to Indianapolis via Boston, with a halt for a day or two with old friends at some village in northern New Hampshire.

This carrying of polling-books by enumerators, and the devious ways by which they reached their fields of work, are enough, I think, to explain the curious returns without charging poor Superintendent Porter, who has a good many very hard things to explain, with deliberately issuing orders to make the returns in Democratic strongholds small. J.

INDIANA, November 24, 1890.

ANOTHER EFFECT OF PENSION LAWS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to mention another "effect of pension laws." In a small town in the State of Indiana lives an old soldier who, for some

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years, has made a living by selling candy and sweet stuff at a street corner, and, as a general thing, was fairly sober. Under the new pension law he was allowed, as back pay, some three thousand dollars, which he gayly proceeded to drink up among like-minded friends and old soldiers enjoying similar windfalls. After leading a merry life for some months, the money ran out, and our friend is now in much the same state as of old, with nothing to show for his "back pay" except an increased love for strong waters. B. G.

PITTSBURGH, PA., November 24, 1890.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As a depreciatory outcome of pension legislation, your correspondent, "E. A. B." of Washington, Ga., cites the case of a woman in his section, the widow of a soldier in the war of 1812, who receives a pension on account of her deceased husband, and is now living with a man to whom she is not married, and who gives as a reason for her conduct that, if she was married to the man with whom she is living, it would discontinue her pension. The recent extravagant pension legislation of Congress is exceedingly objectionable, but there is no remedy for it in indiscriminate criticism. Section 2 of the amendment to section 4702 of the Revised Statutes, passed August 7, 1882, provides that "the open and notorious adulterous cohabitation of a widow who is a pensioner shall operate to terminate her pension from the commencement of such cohabitation." The amendment referred to applies alone to widows of Union soldiers in the War of the Rebellion. E. W. BAGBY.

PADUCAH, KY., November 25, 1890.

MASSACHUSETTS IN THE LAST ELECTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your editorial of this week on "The Popular Voice in the Elections," you say: "But the vote at the Congressional election of 1886 cannot be taken as a basis for comparison with the vote of 1890, for the reason that the tariff issue played a very small part in that contest." This is undoubtedly true of the election of 1886 in New York and the West, but in Massachusetts the tariff was made the most important issue in that election, and four Democratic Congressmen were elected, as against one in the election of 1884. The tariff fight was notably vigorous in the Third District, where Ranney, who had been elected in 1884 by four or five thousand Republican majority, but on a tariff-reform platform, and who had voted against the consideration even of the Morrison Bill, was defeated by Leopold Morse by a majority of over two thousand.

A comparison of the Congressional vote of Massachusetts in 1886 and in 1890 will show, I believe, that the Republican stay-at-home vote this year was not abnormally large, and that in Massachusetts, as in Iowa and Illinois, many Republicans have burned their bridges and have voted for Democratic Congressmen on the tariff issue. MUGWUMP.

BOSTON, November 29, 1890.

FRANCE AND ITALY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your Roman correspondent writes, in his letter of October 17 (*Nation*, p. 340): "It is a fact well known in official circles, though denied with derision by the French journals, that two years ago France had planned an attack on Italy, etc. . . . I have sufficient information from the highest official sources to leave no doubt of its reality."

I can only wonder that such absurd talk can have found its way into your columns. Saying this, I do not mean in any way to put in doubt the insight and good faith of your correspondent, but only to call attention to the atmosphere of misrepresentations and extravagant fancies which seems to be that of certain political circles in Italy. I showed the passage of "W. J. S.'s" letter to a well-informed statesman, who simply shrugged his shoulders in reply, and I hardly believe that any competent judge of our foreign policy would answer in another manner. There is no more foolish idea than the belief that France, with her present Government and Constitution, can wage war at a day's notice to surprise an unprepared neighbor. A war against Italy, if it were not wholly defensive, would be so unsupported by public opinion in France that a minister who should take *one* step towards that result would not hold his portfolio for a week.

I must add that the very unfriendly tone of your correspondent's letter with regard to France, whose natural sympathy for Italy and love for peace he deliberately ignores, can only affect an unprejudiced looker-on as the echo of hostile feelings which, prevailing in Italian official circles, have fortunately not yet spread over the Italian people at large.

Truly yours, SALOMON REINACH.

CLEOPATRA'S COMPLEXION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I see that Mme. Bernhardt is playing *Cleopatra* in a mahogany-red wig, with her skin stained copper color (*your* correspondent says "auburn" as to hair and "brown" as to skin). I suppose this is in accordance with the rule that *Othello*, a *Moor*, must wear wool, instead of hair, and smutch to the blackness of the negro. Cleopatra was, as you know, a Greek by blood, descended in the eighth degree from Ptolemy I. (Soter), the reputed son of Philip of Macedon, the honored and trusted half-brother of Alexander the Great; hence, although an Egyptian queen, she was not of the Egyptian race. While she may have worn royal Egyptian robes, she herself, physically, must have possessed the characteristics of the Aryan—at least a *white* skin, and, possibly, blue eyes and golden hair. Now, under these circumstances, will not one of the several "Cleopatras" at present about give us the Queen in all the splendor of *Aryan* beauty?

C.

Notes.

ESTES & LAURIAT have in press, in connection with the Browning Society of London, Robert Browning's 'Prose Life of Strafford,' with an introduction by S. B. Firth and preface by F. J. Furnivall.

A former secretary to Mr. Ruskin, Mr. W. G. Collingwood, has been allowed to compile, edit, and publish as much of the former's poetic productions as may be deemed worthy of preservation. The sole volume of 1850 will be nearly doubled in size, and a chronological arrangement will be observed. Twenty-five plates from unpublished drawings by Mr. Ruskin will be inserted. Three editions will meet a variety of tastes.

W. S. Gottsberger & Co. publish directly 'The Elixir, and Other Tales,' by Georg Ebers, translated by Mrs. Edward Hamilton Bell—an authorized edition with the author's portrait.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready 'The Story of My House,' by George H. Ellwanger.

'The Heart of the Golden Roan' is the title of a poem of action which D. Lothrop Co. will shortly bring out. It is by O. C. Auringer, author of 'Scythe and Sword,' who is engaged upon a story of the navy entitled 'The Enchanted Marine.'

'How to be a Pastor' is the title given to a practical work by the Rev. Theodore L. Cuyler, now in the press of the Baker & Taylor Company.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert are about to issue a paper-covered edition of 'An Appeal to Pharaoh,' a fantastic "solution" of the Southern problem, which, we are now told, was written by Mr. Carlyle McKinley, one of the editors of the Charleston *News and Courier*.

The J. G. Cupples Company, Boston, will soon issue 'Aunty's Elfin Land,' a fairy tale, by Mrs. Maria Hildreth Parker, sister-in-law of Gen. B. F. Butler.

Ginn & Co. have assumed publication of a little work hitherto issued by another Boston firm, changing the title ('Bedside Poetry') to 'Good-night Poetry,' as being unambiguous. This anthology is offered as a "parents' assistant in moral discipline" and as an aid to the cultivation of the literary taste in children, the selections having purposely been restricted to a high grade of verse. Its present publishers think its usefulness not limited to the home circle, and accordingly recommend it to teachers and the class-room.

A sixth edition of the 'Mikado's Empire' is being issued by Harper & Bros. Dr. Griffis's work has held its own during fourteen years, and has been a quarry for most bookmakers in the same field since it first appeared. It has now three supplementary chapters, on Japan in 1883, 1886, and 1890, the history being brought down to August in this memorable year of the trial of parliamentary government. Thus renewed, the work enters upon a fresh career of popularity at home and abroad.

The author of 'Vice Versa' and 'The Tinted Venus' has a secure place among English humorists, but his longer efforts have not escaped a certain monotony and even tedium. In the character of an overhearer and reporter of public conversations, Mr. Anstey, as the columns of *Punch* have demonstrated, is at his best. The collection he has just made under the title 'Voces Populi' (Longmans) is capable of affording lasting amusement, and some of these mirth-provoking scenes and dialogues are well adapted to being acted on the private stage. Such, for example, is "Third Class—Parliamentary," which takes place in a smoking compartment between a suburban tradesman and a "seedy but burly Stranger," or the unsurpassable discourse of guides at show places. Political satire finds a subject in "Trafalgar Square" and "Sunday Afternoon in Hyde Park"; social satire in "At a French Play," "Picture Sunday," "At a Wedding," "Choosing Christmas Cards," and in many other of these two dozen snatches; while the British tourist is hit off to the life in "At a Highland Table d'Hôte," "At a North British Hydropathic," "On a Trip to Staffa and Iona," etc. Mr. Anstey has been particularly fortunate in his illustrator, Mr. J. Bernard Partridge, who has a genuine eye for types of man and womankind. The book is beautifully made.

Mr. John Ashton's forte lies in the selection of antiquarian topics fit for some one to make a book out of. His native ability to work up his own material is very inconsiderable, and there is hardly one of the many expensive volumes he has brought out which is not open

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to censure for its literary execution. His lack of orderliness, of scholarly precision, of a good English style, is very apparent in the latest, 'Curious Creatures in Zoölogy' (Cassell Publishing Co.). It is a handsome volume, with a great store of illustrations, and confusedly deals with real and with mythical curiosities, with giants and pigmies, Amazons, tailed men, cyclops, chimæras, krakens, leviathans, harpies, sphinxes, pelicans, salamanders, the barnacle goose, etc., etc. All sorts of authorities, from Darwin to Marco Polo, Pliny, Herodotus, and Homer are drawn upon with very great indifference to particularity of reference. The odd figures are also very imperfectly accredited, and Mr. Ashton resorts to his favorite practice of tracing from the original instead of giving a photographic facsimile and retaining the character of the copied drawings. Such a medley may afford a certain degree of amusement or mental dissipation if taken piecemeal; otherwise it is well calculated to excite either fatigue or irritation.

A Berlin journal which, like the *Nation*, has just celebrated its quarter-century, has made an interesting souvenir of its career, 'Zum fünfundzwanzigjährigen Bestehen der *Modenwelt*' (New York: International News Co.). This fashion magazine attained in ten years a circulation of 30,000 copies (since swelled to 165,000), began at once to be printed in three languages in as many countries, and is now issued in fifteen. All this is related, together with details and cost of production, titles of works published in connection with the magazine, and an account of a Pension, Widows' and Orphan Fund established by the founder, Mr. Franz Lipperheide and his wife, for the benefit of their employees. Facsimiles of the several editions of the *Modenwelt* and of a century of fashion plates are succeeded by a bibliography of fashion journals 1798–1865.

Present-day interest in Brazil is scarcely ministered to by the doing into English, at this late day, of Mme. Toussaint-Samson's 'A Parisian in Brazil' (Boston: James H. Earle). The narrative is vivacious, however, and bears the stamp of sincerity in its account of a state of things now past. The funny French-English of the translation—the translator is Mme. Toussaint-Samson's daughter—is put forth in the most serious good faith, but almost deserves classification with "English as she is wrote."

Dodd, Mead & Co. publish, for the holiday season, 'A Marriage for Love,' by Ludovic Halévy, translated by Frank Hunter Potter, and profusely illustrated by Wilson De Meza. The story is charming, the translation capable, and the illustrations clever and pleasing. The decorations of the printed page are noticeably good, but the same ones should not have been repeated throughout. The book is in paper, but is provided with an outer cover in old figured silk as well as with the regulation box. It would make a pretty Christmas gift or a still prettier wedding present.

Mr. Stanley Lane-Poole, whose 'Life of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe' appeared two years ago in two volumes, and was reviewed by us at the time, has considerably cut down the bulk of the work, "chiefly by the omission of the longer despatches and memoranda," and without sacrifice of anything of general interest. Thus reduced, and compressed also in the printing, the Life makes a single volume of a "Popular Edition" just issued in good style by Longmans, Green & Co. Less than four hundred pages are advantageously substituted for the thousand that could only be read by skipping.

We are requested to state that the privately printed 'Memoir of Algernon Sydney Sullivan' has, in response to numerous requests, been put on sale at Brentano's, No. 5 Union Square, at the price of one dollar. It contains portraits of Mr. Sullivan, and, besides a sketch of his life, the tributes, civic, legal, and clerical, to our late well-known fellow-citizen.

"The Whole World Kin" is the sub-title appropriately given to a biography of the late Rev. Nathan Brown, D.D., one of the scholarly American missionaries who in two countries of Asia have reflected lustre upon the country from which they were sent. Descended from the same ancestral stock as John Brown of Kansas and Harper's Ferry fame, and reared on a New Hampshire farm, Mr. Brown went out in 1833 to Burma as a Baptist missionary. Quickly learning the language of the country watered by the Irawadi and the Brahmaputra, he became a pioneer in Assam, building up schools, translating the Bible, furnishing the elements of a Christian vernacular literature, and serving in the itinerancy and pastorate as a missionary and factotum, until 1855. His linguistic work in grammar, lexicography, and translation has been generously acknowledged by Max Müller. Though his general methods are now looked upon as old-fashioned, if not obsolete, yet much of what he did remains as solid foundation upon which others have built and may build. From 1856 to 1872 he was editor of the *American Baptist*. Under appointment of the American Baptist Missionary Union, with restored health, and having remarried, the veteran sailed for Japan January 6, 1873, and in Yokohama at once began the mastery of the Japanese language. His knowledge of Sanskrit and the southern Asiatic languages gave him an immense advantage, and at his death on January 1, 1886, he had, with native assistance, translated the entire New Testament, and seen the formation of eight churches with 800 members. His version of the New Testament in Japanese is far from being invulnerable to just criticism, especially in his employment of supposed equivalents for the demonology of the Bible. Nevertheless, his work has distinctive merits of its own, and is of permanent value. He had a robust common sense that served him well at all times. The biographical volume prepared by his daughter is an octavo of 606 pages, with portraits, but without index (Philadelphia: Hubbard Bros.).

Reprinted from the New York *Ledger*, with revision, condensation, and manifest improvement, Mr. W. C. Kitchin's story of Portuguese Christianity in Japan in the seventeenth century now appears in book form from the press of Robert Bonner's Sons. Mr. Kitchin is a Harvard graduate who spent three years, from 1882 to 1885, at Nagasaki, within sight or easy reach of the scenes made memorable by the great insurrection of 1637. Accurate as a rule in historical and geographical perspective and detail, the author's plot is light, and the treatment of character is scarcely more than upon the surface. The use of modern words such as *tempo*, a brass coin first struck in 1830 and named after the chronological period then inaugurated, and of *sampan*, the "pidgin" English term for boat, is anachronistic. The author never saw a Japanese crucifixion in which bamboo, ropes, and impaling spears, without nails, constituted the apparatus of torture. There are several other decidedly un-Japanese conceptions and phrases attributed to the native Christians and pagans, but on the whole the author has made a story that is full of brisk movement and perhaps well suited to his *Ledger* readers. In revising it, however, the name has been changed to 'Paoli, the Last of the Missionaries.' In its improved form, it is well-worthy of a place in the libraries as illustrating a stirring phase of the contact between European and Asiatic civilization in the seventeenth century. The numerous illustrations are interesting, not as works of art, but as the attempts of Occidental draughtsmen to represent the far-Oriental visage, dress, motions, and scenery. Naturally, the features emphasized and even exaggerated are those in which native Japanese artists would proceed to the opposite extreme.

It was worth while to collect from Roman Catholic newspapers of the last forty years the reports of speeches, and addresses, and replies of Cardinal Newman on various occasions, as is done in 'Sayings of Cardinal Newman' (Catholic Publication Society). Some of them are so good that they must have been taken down verbatim, or have followed a manuscript, but they are very unequal, the first, "About Poetry," being one of the best, and "Accepting First Praise" being one of the worst, mean-spirited in its harsh contempt for the Church from which Newman had seceded, and false in asserting that never before 1851 had he received any praise. "On the Pleasant Care of Boys" is such a happy title that what follows disappoints. There are others "On What a Cardinal Ought to Be," his literary standing, his trepidation as an author, and so on, thirty-three items in all. There is a frontispiece, from a photograph taken shortly before Newman's death, and pathetic in its sorrowful senility.

The edition of Dr. Edersheim's 'Jesus the Messiah' which now appears in holiday dress (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.), is considerably abridged from the two-volume edition of 1883, and Dr. Sanday frankly confesses in his preface that "much has been lost which constituted the peculiar and unrivalled excellence of the larger work." This was its collection of materials illustrating Jewish life and belief in the time of Jesus. The scholar, therefore, will still go to the first edition, checking the author with Hausrath's admirable book and the exhaustive five volumes of Schürer. As a life of Jesus the book is a harmonistic combination of the Gospels, and its apologetic method allows but few concessions to the criticisms of contemporary scholars. The attempt to make a beautiful Christmas volume is only partly successful. The paper is so thin that the print shows through, and the illustrations, photographic reproductions in the main, are generally the least admirable in the case of famous pictures.

The writings of James Russell Lowell (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) are now completed with vol. v., Political Essays, and vol. vi., Literary and Political Addresses. They will be not the least prized of the ten. Earliest in point of time is the ineffaceable judgment of the American Tract Society (1858) for its subserviency to slavery. The Rebellion and Reconstruction and the Seward-Johnson Reaction conclude vol. v.; vol. vi. opens with the sage and optimistic defence of Democracy delivered in 1884, to English auditors. This is followed by other utterances abroad, mostly literary, and then by those addresses in America revisited which earned Mr. Lowell the cordial hatred of the Republican Machine—the Harvard Anniversary address, in President Cleveland's presence and to his honor; the hardly less signal Boston Tariff-Reform address; and the New York address on the Independent in Politics. These are permanent contributions to the political high thinking of the age; and they link Mr. Lowell with Emerson as poets whose prose could hardly less well be

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spared than their verse, and who have no American superiors in either.

The *Andover Review* for December prints the first of two papers entitled "The Preludes of Harper's Ferry," based upon note-books of John Brown in the possession of the writer. The earlier note-book covers the period 1838-1845, when John Brown was, as he styled himself, a "Practical Shepherd" in Ohio. Examination of its contents is accompanied by constant reference to Sanborn's Life of Brown; and the discussion tends to disprove negatively the legend propagated by that work as to Brown's having conceived at a very early period his plan of attacking slavery by force, and having shaped all his adult life towards it. In fact, it would not be incorrect to say that in this paper John Brown is made to sit in judgment on his own biographer.

The January number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* will be awaited with interest, as it tells of a happy discovery by Mr. John Ward Dean of the name of the lady who rejected Roger Williams's suit, before he came to America. She was, it appears, Jane Whalley, a sister of the regicide who took refuge in Connecticut, and a first cousin both of Oliver Cromwell and of John Hampden. She afterwards married the Rev. William Hook, and came to New England, residing in Taunton, not far from Williams in Providence.

We have received the first two numbers of the *Salem Press Historical and Genealogical Record*, July, October, which we commend to all who are interested in Essex County, Mass., its history and its families. It has no novel features, but it seems to have a good excuse for existence.

The October number of the *Asiatic Quarterly Review* contained a very interesting article on Semitic eschatology by Dr. Édouard Montet. Though the author is better known among us by his exhaustive researches in Waldensian literature, he is Professor of Oriental Languages in the University of Geneva, and his true vocation is as an Orientalist. By a comparison of texts he establishes the virtual identity of the Assyrian Arâ'û with the Hebrew Sheôl (the limbo of darkness), where the Êkimmu, or Rephâim (the shades of the dead) exist, but do not live. The only Phœnician inscriptions throwing light on the subject indicate a similar belief in that branch of the Semites. The development of the theory of a future life and retribution Dr. Montet does not ascribe to Mazdean influence, but to Hellenic—the Platonic doctrine of the soul being adopted and modified by the Semitic idea of the dependence of the soul on the body, resulting in the evolution of the dogma of the resurrection. Through Judaism and Christianity belief in immortality was transmitted to the Arabs and was adopted by Mohammed, thus disseminating the Greek idea throughout the world. It is not likely that the last word has been said on a topic so suggestive of discussion, and on which new light may be thrown any day by the discovery of additional inscriptions; but Dr. Montet's familiarity with all existing sources and his careful balancing of probabilities render his thoughtful paper an exceedingly valuable contribution to the literature of the subject.

—In the Christmas *Harper's* the series of Abbey's designs for "As You Like It" is not in accordance with the common imagination of lovers of Shakspere—of this there can be little doubt; but they are not therefore deprived of their interest or in some instances of attractiveness. The picturing of Shakspere is not unlike the acting of the plays, in that each cultivated reader has, as Mr. Lang says of himself, "a vision of his own," and hence is unsatisfied with the interpretation of others, though he may learn from them and must tolerate them. Mr. Abbey's *Adam* and *Jaques* are not to our mind, but to say why would take us into dramatic criticism. Mr. Lang, in his comment, is unusually felicitous, and writes with a certain abandon to his own love for the play, and with an absence of his merely clever vein, which makes his eulogy wholly charming, while he touches always with good taste and excellent judgment upon many of the points raised or suggested by Mr. Furness's recent Variorum edition. Besides this Shakspere series of cuts there are several others, the most important of which are the Californian scenes in connection with Mr. Warner's text, the Rossetti and Burne-Jones pictures, and the house-interiors in connection with Mr. Child's account of the London mansion of Mr. Leyland, and the Japanese illustrations to Pierre Loti's paper on "Japanese Women." All of these are noticeably excellent in one or another way, and the reproductions of the works of the "Pre-Raphaelites" have a more permanent value. The criticism of Mr. Child is of the slightest, but he succeeds in giving a more exact account of the two painters whom he deals with than is usual, as to both their temperament and genius; and the interest of his article lies much more in this than in his catalogue of the decorative pieces and furnishings of this noted London house. This number, as is commonly the case at this season, is largely occupied with short stories of several varieties, but with a tendency to the homespun. There is but one poem, by Mrs. Fields, and this is not a Christmas ballad.

—The December *Atlantic* brings to an end the interesting series of papers upon the translation of the greatest foreign poets in Greek, Italian, and German, with Mr. Andrews's discussion of English versions of 'Faust.' A final note upon each article also appears in the "Contributors' Club." The example of Goethe, in the present paper, is treated with less fulness than is desirable, and calls for no comment. The three articles are, taken together, noticeable for the width of the subject, inasmuch as the hexameter, *terza rima*, and broken rhyming chorus, none of which have flourished in native English verse, are all included. The impracticability of translation is the one thing which is brought out in each case, though none of the writers has insisted upon this or assigned reasons for it with any clearness. The inferiority of the translator to the original author in power of expression is, of course, the sufficient reason for failure by itself, but beyond this the great distinction between them, in that the poet is preoccupied with the ideas and the translator with the form, makes an insuperable difficulty. The poet is not hampered or confined or compelled by the form, he is its master; the translator is, on the contrary, its slave. In other words, the power of translation is the inverse of that of creation, and success is not to be expected; it is not unlike the habit of writing imitative verse after some reigning poet, such as Tennyson, with the added difficulty of using another's fixed thought. The result never rises above minor poetry, so far as expression is concerned; and unless the translator be himself a poet, and puts his own voice and melody into the work, the result is usually minor poetry of a particularly insignificant kind. The story, the intellectual contents, may be given; the expression of the original, the art, cannot be transferred to the new work except that sometimes enough may shine through to show us the "archangel ruined." This would be still more apparent if the authors selected had been those whose sense of form was most refined, such as Virgil or Petrarch. The proof is perhaps most evident in the fact that translations do not make the appeal to the mind that the originals do; they are read not for themselves, but for their fame. In the rest of the number we cordially recommend to our readers Capt. Mahan's thoughtful and comprehensive article on the world-relations of this country.

—*Scribner's* presents us with a novelty in the shape of a "Pastoral without Words," a series of twelve drawings by Howard Pyle, in which a complete story is told with grace and effect, with just that touch of unreality that belongs to the pastoral, and which is perhaps more easily achieved by the artist than by the poet or romancer in our time. It makes a delightful innovation in the resources of magazine illustration, and is the more pleasing because it has no superfluous verses tagged at the bottom of the page. The main paper is that which opens the number, the first of Sir Edwin Arnold's promised contributions upon his journey in Japan. We have had much writing in the magazines of late upon this theme, but each new author seems to find his own peculiar freshness of inspiration, unlike and yet the same with one another's, and here we have, as in the recent sketches of La Farge, an individualized and poetical view, a eulogy of the softer aspects of social life and childlike qualities of the race, and a vigorous account of the landscape. The writer begins with a very full description of the place held in the nation's taste by flowers and of the art of arranging them, the associations attached to them separately, the courtesies springing out of their charm for the people; and in general he sets before us this single trait of the country as if he would make of it a note in which to pitch his whole work. He then attends to the landscape and climate, and gradually winds into the ordinary road of travellers. Kenilworth and Warwick Castle are made the occasion of a commonplace article by Mr. Rideing, and the auction-room of "Christie's" is employed in the same way, but with the advantage of more novelty in the matter and better handling by the writer. A more noticeable paper is the sketch, by A. F. Jacassy, of the works and career of the Neapolitan artist Morelli, who is little known, but whose place in the "new Italy" is so conspicuous that knowledge of him will be very welcome. The illustrations to this article do not seem to us up to the mark which is to be justly required in such a case.

—The *Century* opens with a generous instalment of early Californian history—a chapter on the period before the gold discovery, by Gen. John Bidwell, one upon the "Ranch and Mission Days in Alta California," by Guadalupe Vallejo, and two minor notes on American Trading and the Yosemite, making in all a very solid block of reading; but the romantic and half-foreign interest inherent in the theme relieves it from tedium, and the reminiscences of Gen. Bidwell, in particular, have that mild flavor of the early rude time of the first occupation which never tires the student of human life. Another American article takes up the story of our navy in its first brilliant era, and treats it with more minute and thorough consideration than it has hitherto received, not without gain to our knowledge and useful correction of misconception or of British error. The cuts illustrating this article are very

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striking, and show the remarkable power of our magazines in handling designs on the page. The second article upon Thibet takes the reader across the Chinese border into a strange land, and, notwithstanding the novel scenes about Tankar and the religious seat of Kumbum, gives promise of still greater interest in the unknown country lying before. Of the remaining papers, the most curious is that entitled "The Record of Virtue," in which the ideas of some boys who had not been under the best conditions of life, are set forth in their own language and spelling, and in some instances their own chirography, upon the subject of the greatest or the kindest actions of which they had heard. Salvini contributes his support to the theory of acting which requires the actor to feel the emotion he assumes, and he gives very briefly his own method of studying his impersonations. The moral article is by Dr. Lyman Abbott, in advocacy of the doctrine that though a State must not have a church, a nation must have a religion. His way to the paradox lies through an identification of religious with moral life.

—A correspondent writes to us:

"Your reviewer of 'Modern Ghosts' does not mention the extraordinary awkwardness of some of the translations, and especially of those executed by Charles Flint McClumpha. Such phrases as 'thoroughly affrighted,' 'eyes staringly fixed,' 'or culled from the dish one of the choice fruits or little bonbons,' are not calculated to give pleasure to the reader; but when it comes to 'you dare not' (meaning you must not), p. 212, 'soon after *that* she had vanished in such a mysterious way, the bridegroom went below,' and 'he [Leb Narr] approached the miserable mother, and in a tone least becoming his general manner inquired' (meaning in a tone as little as possible in accordance with his usual manner), one cannot help wondering what hodge-podge of languages this may be. The fact that the translator bears the name of an instructor in a well-known college makes his incompetence for his task all the more remarkable."

—Under the auspices of the Department of Agriculture, Dr. C. Hart Merriam, Chief of the Division of Ornithology and Mammalogy, made a biological survey of the San Francisco Mountain region of Arizona in the summer of 1889. The results of his explorations are published in a bulletin entitled "North American Fauna, No. 3," which, in addition to the scientific descriptions of many new species of animals, contains interesting accounts of the physical features of that remarkable district. The summit of the mountain, a great volcanic cone rising to an altitude of 12,794 feet above sea-level and about six thousand feet over the desert plateau, possesses a well-marked Alpine flora, including, strange to say, no less than nine species of plants identical with forms brought by Greely from Lady Franklin Bay, in latitude 81 degrees north. The seven faunal and floral zones which Dr. Merriam recognizes on the mountain are neatly illustrated on several maps. His graphic account of one of the peculiarities of the storms and streams of that region is worth presenting to our readers. "Following the course of a gully or 'wash' across the Painted Desert, we saw a heavy rain-storm raging over the high mesas to the north and east during the entire afternoon of August 14, though not a cloud came between us and the parching sun. Before dark, a furious wind, the vehicle of a sand-blast, swept down the wash between the row of cliffs which mark its course, abating as night came on. About ten o'clock we were startled by a loud roaring in the North, which at first gave the impression that a severe storm was advancing upon us, but not a cloud could be seen, and the stars shone brightly in every direction. The roaring increased and came nearer until it was evident that something was coming down the bed of the wash; and in a moment a great wave of thick mud rushed past, with a tremendous roar, accompanied by a fetid stench. The first wave was about five feet high, but it soon rose to eight feet, where it remained for an hour, and then slowly subsided."

WOODBERRY'S ESSAYS.

Studies in Letters and Life. By George Edward Woodberry. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

It is well for the public that these remarkable essays have been rescued from the periodicals in which they first appeared, and presented in a more permanent and accessible shape; it would be the greatest pity if, in the rush and glitter of publication that floods the season, they should be swept aside into some nook or corner of temporary oblivion. Brief as they are, there is nothing ephemeral either in their matter or their form. The beauty and distinction of their style, the wisdom and rightness of the opinions they express, entitle them to a longer lifetime than the allotted span of critical work. There was a time when the reviewer wielded a bludgeon like Polyphemus, and, like him, "cared not for strangers nor for the immortals." Mr. Woodberry does not belong to this ruthless race. The author of "Agathon" has a right to discourse of poetry, because he has shown a rare and refined gift of poetry; the author of that conscientious and painstaking piece of work, the 'Life of Poe,' in the "American Men of Letters" series, shows that he has the insight, the culture, the sympathetic spirit, the patient research which are necessary to the man of letters and the critic.

The range of Mr. Woodberry's interests and appreciation is remarkable. Spenser and Shelley and Keats are in the direct line of his poetic ancestry; and he writes of them with the complete and subtle understanding which might be expected of a spiritual descendant who has some strain of their blood running in his veins. But he also discusses with justice and discrimination the work of craftsmen so opposed in style as Landor and Crabbe; he can mention Scott without aversion; he treats of Mr. Pater's 'Marius' and the Pergamon Marbles, and of Darwin's Life; and, in a sympathetic sketch of the training and experience of Bunyan, he makes the origin of his gifts intelligible, and successfully combats a characteristic opinion of the late Mr. Arnold, who described the author of 'Pilgrim's Progress' as a "Philistine of genius." These widely diverse studies and appreciations are unified by the point of view of the author. At a time when realism is everywhere the mode, he has the courage to be an idealist; and at a time when we are urged to pursue art for art's sake only, he points us to the fact that nothing has endured in art and poetry which is not rooted in the soul of man and in his highest aspirations. How wholesome it is just now, for example, when so many ardent ladies, under the guidance of Mr. Gladstone, have been admiring without measure the journal of Marie Bashkirtseff, with its precocious talent, its selfishness, its inhumanity, its insatiable lust of fame, and its pathetic close, pointing nowhere, to be reminded of this sentence of Keats: "Women must want imagination, and they may thank God for it; and so may we, that a delicate being can feel happy without any sense of crime." Keats also, that English avatar of the Platonic spirit, had the artistic temperament in the highest measure, like this unhappy young girl whose fate resembled his; but his fame has in it the salt of a human and moral purpose which all her aims and aspirations lacked. As Mr. Woodberry finely remarks: "To other men beauty has been a passion, but to him it was a faith; it was the substance of things hoped for, the evidence of things unseen—*a shadow of the reality to come.* . . . But although to Keats the worship of beauty in all things was the essence of his life, and the delight that sprang from it the essence of his joy, he did not find in these the whole of life." The critic reminds us once more that this Platonic soul, with his transcendental faith, could write in his later letters: "I find earlier days are gone by, . . . I find I can have no enjoyment in the world but continual drinking of knowledge. I find there is no worthy pursuit but the idea of doing some good to the world." "In this constant expansion of his view and faithful laying of his experience to heart; in the wisdom of his interpretation of what came within his scope; in a word, in his teachableness as well as in his steadier enthusiasm, his unclogged sensibility, his finer spirituality," Mr. Woodberry discovers the promise of Keats; and, in the remarks we have quoted, reveals something of his own artistic doctrine and method of thought.

We find it impossible to resist further illustration of these, because nowhere of late have we seen distinctions so clearly expressed in a region where vague notions flourish and lead to endless hazy controversy. If we ask, for example, how Landor differed from the great poets, what better answer could be given than this?—"He did not bind his work together by the laws of his own mind; he did not root it in the truth, as he saw the truth; he did not interpenetrate and permeate it with his own beliefs, as the great masters have always done. . . . And so he became hardly more than a mirror of beauty and an Æolian harp of thought; if the vision came, if the wind breathed, he responded." If we ask, again, what constitutes the "classical" in literature, and what the "romantic," wherein did they differ, wherein did they excel, we are told with a clearness which illuminates the whole subject:

"This self-effacement [of Landor's], this impersonality, as it is called, in literature, is much praised. It is said to be classical, and there is an impression in some minds that such an abdication of the individual's prerogatives is the distinctive mark of classicism. There is no more misleading and confusing error in criticism. *Not impersonality, but universality, is that mark;* and this is by no means the same thing differently stated. In any age, the first, although not the sole characteristic of classical work is, that it deals with universal truth, of interest to all men; and hence the poet is required to keep to himself his idiosyncrasies, his hobbies, all that is simply his own; . . . but the statement that Shakspere or Swift obliterated themselves from their works need only to be made to be laughed at. The faith of Æschylus, the wisdom of Sophocles, are in all their dramas: Anacreon is in all his songs, Horace in all his odes. . . . The classical poet usually perceives the object by his intellect, and makes his appeal to the mind; the romantic poet seizes on the object with his imagination, and makes his appeal to the heart."

The complete truth of all such definitions depends on the limitations with which they are presented, limitations which we must necessarily omit; but we are tempted to add one more gnome or maxim, not merely because it is perfectly expressed, but because it contains for the author the statement of a creed: "Art is, in a sense, a world removed from the actual and present life, and beauty is the sole title that admits any work within its limits. Of this there is no question. But that world, how-

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ever far from what is peculiar to any one age, has its eternal foundations in universal life, and that beauty has its enduring power because it is the incarnation of universal life."

From such a declaration of faith it is natural to turn to Shelley, of whom Mr. Woodberry writes with his usual critical perception, warmed by the eloquence of a disciple as well as an admirer. The author of the "North Shore Watch" will hardly disclaim this attitude entirely. He is far from being bound to the formula of any master; yet his poetic creed undoubtedly approaches that of Shelley; and it is no disparagement to say that stanzas of the "North Shore Watch" in music and in sentiment reflect gleams of the "Adonais." Under these circumstances, it is natural that he, too, should feel "the charm which fascinated Shelley's familiar friends," and that his remarks should leave the poet's memory invested with a halo. For ourselves the halo is broken and dimmed by those artless letters of Harriet Shelley published more than a year ago in the *Nation*. Who that has observed the successful inequalities of marriage, and the impossibility of mating genius, can deny that, to all appearance, Shelley began better than Heine and Goethe ended? Who can maintain that a little good sense and decision would not have routed the household foe, if Mary Godwin had not made her appearance? But such conjectures are perhaps endless and idle. Our point is different, and it is this. It is not proved that the first marriage was necessarily unsuitable or necessarily a misfortune. It is far from proved that Harriet Shelley was unfaithful, though it is not unfair to say that Shelley made haste to believe her guilt, and, in doing so, let his passion steer him to his conclusions. It appears, too, that long after her death he was willing to repeat insinuations against his unfortunate wife, though, as far as can be discovered, his suspicions were unfounded. We grant that if allowance is made for Shelley's temperament and organization, almost any vagaries and errors may be excused in him. If he is canonized, he must be judged by ordinary standards. With all its reservations, Mr. Woodberry's estimate borders on canonization. We, too, are admirers, ready to be votaries, and awaiting full conviction. But we are troubled with scruples.

The brief appreciation of Browning is an interesting example of sound and penetrating judgment, pronounced while we were still in the thick of Browning circles and societies, and unsafe within the wind of their commotion. But our readers can turn back to it, and we need not dwell upon it.

In commenting on Darwin's Life with great fairness, acuteness, and good sense, Mr. Woodberry notes the curious deadening of the æsthetic tastes which the great man himself confesses—the gradual fading of his interest in poetry, in art, in landscape, and of his belief in religious subjects; and he inquires, not how much we have lost in Darwin through this, but how much Darwin himself lost. "Darwin's was a character," he observes, "which might well spare the humanities. The fact remains that he did spare them. What he lost was culture." The world at large will not regret this; and a genius so definite, so predestined, one may say, might well be permitted to narrow and concentrate its work and its faculties in the interest of science and of mankind. But the personal results of this narrowing process were so marked that they may serve as a beacon and a warning against the natural effects of exclusively scientific education upon the ordinary mind. The average mind is, on the whole, that with which education deals and with which it is concerned. The average intellect cannot expect to work the wonders in observation and generalization which were achieved by Darwin, but it may count on the same narrowing influence which he underwent from his special studies.

We cannot pursue these illustrations of idealism, and we can only allude to the survey of Italian Renaissance literature, which discloses a perfect understanding of the Italian race and a delicate perception of their national genius. *Ex pede Herculem* hardly holds in works of art; and we have no excuse for our extended quotations, except that they show the thoughtfulness of the critic, his openness of mind, how straight he goes to the heart of things, how unerringly "he strikes his finger on the place." With all this, Mr. Woodberry joins something more—the Puritan conscience and some grains of the mystic's faith. He refers us to certain old enduring standards—he still listens to those high voices of the spirit, "mächtig und gelind," which inspired all that survives in literature and art, but which are growing confused and distant to many of us in an earthy and "faithless generation."

WEBSTER'S INTERNATIONAL DICTIONARY.

Webster's International Dictionary of the English Language; being the authentic edition of Webster's Unabridged Dictionary, comprising the issues of 1864, 1879, and 1884, now thoroughly revised and enlarged under the supervision of Noah Porter, D.D., LL.D., of Yale University. With a voluminous appendix. Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam & Co. 1890. Pp. 2,118, royal 4to.

The many columns we have felt constrained to devote of late to notices, more or less elaborate, of different dictionaries of the English language, either completed or in course of publication, show how much of the literary activity of the day is employed in this direction, and how keen is the rivalry between the various competitors for public favor. The latest is this new edition of a well-known and popular work which requires no introduction at our hands. We shall, accordingly, only attempt to indicate, at no very great length, some of the particulars in which such an extended examination as we have been able to give to it has led us to regard it as a very decided improvement upon the earlier editions. The matter of orthography, unfortunately, is not to be counted in this category; and its fantastic method of spelling, which from the outset has been its chief blemish, has been retained. In all other respects it seems to us to record the standard usage of our language.

This substantial volume is a dictionary intended for popular use, rather than for the scientific student of words; and still less could the merits of an encyclopædia be claimed for it. But accurate scholarship at all points is evident throughout it, and fulness of illustration is nowhere wanting. In saying that it is intended for popular use we only mean to declare that in nine cases out of ten in which a dictionary is consulted, unless as a spelling-book, it is to learn the definition of a word. For this purpose convenience in use is essential, and therefore a single-volume dictionary must always possess a great advantage over those of larger bulk. Then the style of printing, shown in the typographical arrangement of the subject-matter, must be such as to facilitate a rapid mastery of the contents of each article. But something more than facility in handling and clearness of typography is needed for the ideal dictionary for popular use; and we venture to assert that in the four chief requisites of such a work, *completeness*, *accuracy*, *terseness*, and *perspicuity* in its definitions, 'Webster's International Dictionary' is equal, if not superior, to any similar work in the English language. All departments of knowledge, including etymology, in which the work has hitherto been admittedly defective, have been intrusted to competent hands. Illustrative wood-cuts have been introduced in abundance, and we have been struck by the good judgment displayed in their selection, and by the very decided improvement in this respect manifested in this new edition. It is clear that great pains have been taken to correct errors of definition that have been detected in the earlier editions, and to keep up with the multitude of new words that the advance of science, or other causes, are constantly introducing into our language.

The following are some instances we have noticed of improvements of this character: Under *academy*, the employment of this term for "a school, or seminary of learning holding a rank between a college and a common school," has been pointed out as a popular rather than a correct usage. *To sell bargains* is now defined as "to make saucy (usually indelicate) repartees,' instead of restricting its signification to the latter only. Mr. Trumbull's derivation of *caucus* from the Indian languages has been adopted instead of the former one, which regarded it as a corruption of *calkers'* [meetings]. Under *explode*, as an intransitive verb, the figurative signification of the word has been admitted, as, "his wrath exploded." *Grisette* is no longer restricted to "a young working-woman who is fond of gallantry," and the character of a large and deserving class is thus cleared from an unmerited slur. Under *lithophyte* the singular blunder of the insertion of a woodcut representing *Petricola pholadiformis*, as an illustration of its meaning, has been corrected. *Majolica* is now properly defined, and *phantomnation* has disappeared from the scene. We find the proper etymology of *rum*, from *rumbullion*, duly chronicled; as well as the technical significance of the word *signature*, used by printers. *To stale*, as an intransitive verb, is no longer marked as obsolete; in fact, we remember that Motley used the word in his 'Dutch Republic.' The erroneous definition of *tomahawk*, copied from Palfrey's 'History of New England,' has been set right. Finally, we notice that *bonanza*, *boodle*, *boycott*, and *mugwump* all duly appear in their proper places, adequately explained.

The following terms, however, in common use by writers upon archæology, are not to be found: *labret*, *terremare*, and *scarab*, all of which, we think, ought to be inserted in the next appendix that appears. We present also *Bowdlerize*, *heteroclital*, *puntpole*, and *to pull up stakes*, as deserving candidates for admission. We notice that the verb *disinteress* has been dropped from the new edition; but a word used by Bacon may have a claim to retain its place in the history of the language. It can be found in his 'History of King Henry VII.' (Spedding & Ellis, American edition, vol. xi., p. 120): "the higher bond . . . doth *disinteress* him of these obligations of gratitude." So, also, with regard to the expression *vale water*, as employed by Ralph Lane, in Hakluyt, vol. iii., p, 313, "the current runneth as strong . . . as at London Bridge upon a *vale water*." This is explained by the Rev. Edward E. Hale to mean "a tide running with the current of the stream," and it was long ago pointed out by

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him as not recognized in the popular dictionaries ('Archæologia Americana,' vol. iv., p. 30).

Of recent coinage we would suggest for adoption *saugrenu*, which Matthew Arnold, in his essay on Joubert, calls "a rather vulgar French word, but, like many other vulgar words, very expressive; used as an epithet for judgment, it means something like *impudently absurd*." So, too, with the term *horse-breaker*, which is defined in the 'Imperial Dictionary' as "a female of the demi-monde; generally accompanied by the epithet pretty." If the editors desire any authority for its use, we would refer them to an epigram by the late Richard Grant White, "Horse-Breaker and Grey Mare," to be found in a note to the edition edited by him of Burton's 'Book Hunter,' p. 292, which begins as follows:

"Aurelia, prettiest of horse-breakers,
Caught Nobleigh, lord of many acres," etc.

One of the most useful of the many valuable appendixes to the work, which, we are informed, has been "carefully elaborated" and enlarged, is the Dictionary of Noted Names of Fiction, compiled by the late William A. Wheeler. Although, of course, it is impossible to define accurately what such a list should, or should not, include, we venture to suggest that *Dunciad* and *Laura Matilda* certainly ought to be found there, and we think that *Widow Bedott*, *Marquis Posas*, and *The Sacred Band* might very well be allowed a place. *George Dandin* is said to be the name of a mock judge, in Rabelais. But his name is actually Pierre (book iii., chap. xii, 38).

We will conclude this notice by pointing out the very few defects we have met with in the course of a somewhat extended examination of the work. *Amphitheatre* is defined as "an oval or circular building." This we consider misleading, and should prefer *elliptical* for *oval*, although *oval* is defined as "a body or figure in the shape of an egg, or of an ellipse," while *ellipse* is called "an oval or oblong figure." We are told that the *bronze age* is "characterized by the use of implements of copper or brass." Now the composition of copper and zinc, called brass, was unknown in the bronze age, but used in classic times; hence it is clear that *bronze*, which is an alloy of copper and tin, should be substituted for *brass*. Under *clam* a citation is made from William Wood's 'New England's Prospect,' but a wrong date is given to it, 1684 instead of 1634. The assertion that to *claim*, used in the sense of "to assert, to maintain," is only colloquial, cannot stand; the usage is common among good writers on both sides of the water. It is stated that *continent*, "that which contains anything," is obsolete; but it is found in Shelley, in "Epipsychidion":

"True love never yet
Was thus constrained; it overleaps all fence:
Like lightning, with invisible violence
Piercing its *continents*."

So too of *discretion*, in its original sense of *separation;* but it is used by Sir William Jones in his noble translation of Alcæus's ode, "The Fiend *Discretion*."

If it is thought best to insert *horn*, "the emblem of a cuckold," the use of the term should be traced as far back as possible. It can be found in the 'Oneirocriticon,' of Apollodorus, Lib. ii., chap. xii. Standing is allowed to the expression *the lay of the land*, although no authority is cited for it and no reference is made to naval usage; the English locution *the lie of the land* is also given. Under *namby-pamby* it ought to be stated that the name was originally given to Ambrose Philips by Henry Carey, as Mr Gosse relates in his account of Philips, contributed to Ward's 'English Poets.' It should also be stated that *nom de plume* is not a good French phrase. Both under *pander* and *Pandarus*, Chryseis is improperly substituted for Cressida. *Pentacle* is defined as "a figure composed of two equilateral triangles intersecting so as to form a six-pointed star." The derivation of the word shows that it could not have *six* points. Its true figure is given under *pentalpha*, of which it is a synonym. The illustration inserted for the word *prow* (of an ancient galley) is wrong, if by *ancient* is meant what was used by the Greeks and Romans. We have also noticed upon the page of illustrations to *Archæology—Stone and Bronze Periods* (which, by the way, are copied from Warsaee's 'Nordiske Oldsager'), that what are there called *coronet of bronze*, *bronze breast-pin*, and *ax of deer-horn* would not be so denominated in the light of present knowledge. Under the word *rare*, in the quotation from Dryden, *with* should read *which*. We would call attention to a new derivation of *shanty*, proposed by Dr. Boudinot, in the *Scotch Review* (April, 1887): he says it is a corruption of *chantier*, used by the French Canadians. Under the word *stone* we find it asserted that *bowing-stone* is "the same as Cromlech. Encyc. Brit." No such statement can be found in the last edition of that work, and there is no authority for it. Finally, *sumptuosity* is said to be obsolete; but Froude uses it in the second chapter of 'The Two Chiefs of Dunboy.'

These are all the blemishes we have noticed in this noble volume, which, both in its design and its execution, reflects the highest credit upon all who have been concerned in its production.

A Russian Journey. By Edna Dean Proctor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Tsar and his People. Harper & Bros.

It is to be regretted that Miss Proctor's book was not subjected to a thorough revision before this second edition was issued. The illustrations cannot be regarded as satisfactory or first-class now, whatever they may have been considered twenty years ago; and the one which purports to represent the Assumption Cathedral in the Moscow Kremlin is, in reality, a very poor picture of a church on the Pokrovka, a mile away from the Coronation Cathedral in space, and equally distant in architecture. Amendments in the text would improve it. Each flight of steps at St. Isaac's Cathedral is not composed of a single stone; people do not kiss the ground when they bow low in church; in St. Petersburg the summer sun is not like a late afternoon sun in an American November; the Kremlin Palace is not built of marble; the nurse's costume and court-dress for ladies are not the same; kumys is not made as described. These are some of the changes we would suggest for the third edition. The book still possesses interest as a record of the manner in which things were done at a recent date, which has been rendered antiquity by Russia's progress, and it is written in an easy style, which makes it agreeable for light reading.

Equally agreeable reading and more satisfactory illustrations are furnished by the handsome volume entitled 'The Tsar and his People.' It is made up from the articles on Russia by various authors which have appeared in *Harper's Magazine* during the past three years. It is a pity that one of the most competent—that on the Russian Army—should not have been included. Incomparably the best part of the book is that furnished by the Vicomte de Vogüé on Social Life. He knows his subject; yet his memory betrays him occasionally, as it does in his work on Russian literature. For example, the Tsar who founded the Romanoff family, Mikhail Feodorovitch, is not buried in the Peter-Paul Fortress Cathedral, but in St. Michael's Cathedral in Moscow; priests must be married before ordination, not after, as here stated; and the picture on page 89, labelled "Officiating Priest," represents a Bishop, a personage who belongs to another order of clergy from the priests, and who wears very different vestments.

Mr. Child's contributions to the volume offer a good, superficial traveller's sketch of the prominent external points of country and people, over a limited area of observation. Naturally, it is the unpleasant features which are most apparent in Russia, as in other countries, to the hasty traveller. He has added some matter to the articles as they originally appeared, and has corrected some errors. Other errors have been overlooked. It is to be doubted, for example, whether he ever saw a gas-jet under a samovar; or men ringing church-bells with hammers; or only four horses to the carriage of the Iversky Virgin; or an image in every room of the palaces. He deplores the new look of everything, and the lavish use of the whitewash-bucket, being ignorant of the action of the climate on the stucco walls to which they are compelled to resort in the absence of stone, and the beneficial effects of whitewash and cleanliness upon health, which is sensibly preferred to picturesque antiquity in Russia. It is difficult to understand what Mr. Child means by "the semi-barbarous mistrustfulness of the existing regulations of the Hermitage," as opposed to "the liberal traditions of European museums." Entrance is as freely accorded to every one above the rank of an unwashed beggar as it is elsewhere in Europe. Peasants in their sheepskins may be encountered in the galleries, and the "court flunkies," far from dogging even these peasants, slumber tranquilly on their chairs, as a rule. Mr. Child evidently visited the Hermitage during the period in summer when it is closed to the public, but when foreigners are courteously admitted, and one attendant was held to a vacation responsibility which is divided among scores in the season.

Equally mistaken is Mr. Child's belief (p. 194) that the Tsar's movements are never announced in advance. The anticipated imperial presence at launches and reviews is frequently announced several days beforehand in the morning papers; the day and hour of all the Court ceremonies is not only known by every one, but is announced regularly, and throngs assemble to see the Emperor and Empress pass. If a great officer of the Court dies, every one knows when and where to watch for them at the prayers and funeral. The celebration which Mr. Child describes, where he saw the Tsar, furnishes an illustration: the Tsar's presence was announced long beforehand. Mr. Child's imagination, which caused him to see a peculiarity in the Empress's attitude in the carriage, misled him in this particular also. It is her usual attitude with whomsoever she drives—the Shah of Persia, the King of Greece, or her husband—and is assumed for the purpose of responding to salutes. The visit to the Caucasian provinces which Mr. Child states to have been "indefinitely delayed," was begun while he was still in the country, or just after he left it, if he made the usual four weeks' stay. It was well known for many months before that it would take place, and when it would take place.

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Mr. Child was also misinformed in regard to the "six modest rooms" at Gatchina. On p. 270 the waiters who brought in the mutton are stated to be Tatars; but the picture on the next page represents four pure-blooded Russians. On p. 332, the "Imperial gates" in the ikonostas are designated as "the altar." The picture by Répine on p. 352 represents the Emperor receiving congratulations after his coronation at the Petrovsky Palace, on the outskirts of Moscow, not in St. Petersburg.

It would, perhaps, be unfair to criticise Mr. Child for believing implicitly all the stories which were told him. He had no time to investigate them, nor any knowledge of the language and people, which was indispensable. But we may state briefly that the sensational tale about Count Tolstoi's treatment of Loris Melikoff is apocryphal, since the two men never met; and that the still more exciting narrative relating to the plague is more curious than veracious. There was no plague. There was a scare, a learned opinion was given by a court physician (now dead), which subjected him to great ridicule; and the mysterious sickness was promptly cured by smashing the windows of the unventilated houses where it prevailed, and admitting fresh air. If we have dwelt at length on some details which may seem trivial to the general reader, it is because, in spite of their smallness in comparison with the good in the articles, they are precisely of the sort which are eagerly seized upon by prejudiced persons, to fortify their preconceived notions as to the land which it is the present fashion to abuse. On the whole, Mr. Child does justice to Russian painters and sculptors, somewhat neglecting the promise of Posen, however, in the latter category, while his hearty praise of Répine must be cordially endorsed by every one who is acquainted with the paintings here described and illustrated, and with the remarkable productions which he was engaged upon during Mr. Child's visit to Russia, but which the latter, evidently, did not see.

Mr. Clarence Cook's article on Russian bronzes is a clever résumé of a branch of Russian art with which the American public is probably more familiar than any other. We may add to his knowledge of his subject that Gentzburg is an Israelite, as well as Antokol-ky. It is a pity that he is not acquainted with some more of Gentzburg's spirited clays and bronzes, and with a certain dashing work by Posen of recent date.

Last of all comes the painter Vassili Verestchagin's delightful sketch of some points in the life of a Russian village. One can only regret that it is so brief. As it is, much reading between the lines can be done by one familiar with the subject, just as there can in the case of his paintings.

One word must be devoted to the illustrations. They are capital; but it seems as though acknowledgment ought to be made when, as in the majority of cases, they are drawn from photographs of places, or from photographed paintings by Russian artists, dealing with scenes which the illustrator could not have seen himself. These photographs are well selected, with the exception of the one entitled "Peterhof Palace." Of the palace, little but the church at one end is visible, the buildings in the foreground being merely the quarters of the suite. The volume is exquisitely got up in every detail of paper, binding, print, and general style, and will, no doubt, rank high in favor among the holiday books of the year.

Wild Beasts and their Ways. By Sir Samuel W. Baker. Macmillan & Co. 1890. Pp. xvi, 455, 8vo, with 28 illustrations.

To those who are not acquainted with the reputation of the author as a sportsman, the title of this book might be a little misleading, and Sir Samuel Baker in his preface makes haste to inform us that "the wild beasts are to be killed, and that we must thoroughly understand their ways before we can undertake their killing"; thus involving a practical study of natural history in a most interesting form. Naturalists and sportsmen alike will heartily applaud the opinion which is expressed in the following paragraph:

"It should be distinctly understood that a vast gulf separates the true sportsman from the merciless gunner. The former studies nature with keen enjoyment, and shoots his game with judgment and forbearance upon the principles of fair play, sparing the lives of all females should the animals be harmless; he never seeks the vainglory of a heavy game list. The gunner is the curse of the nineteenth century; his one idea is to use his gun, his love is slaughter indiscriminate and boundless, to swell the long account which is his boast and pride. Such a man may be an expert as a gunner, but he is not a sportsman, and he should be universally condemned."

The author begins by a retrospect, from his own experience, of the arms necessary for the destruction of wild animals, and the progress shown in their development during the last half century. He is a strong advocate, in the case of large and dangerous animals, of a heavy rifle carrying a two or three-ounce solid bullet of hardened alloy, or pure soft lead, according to the circumstances, propelled by nearly half an ounce of powder. We think he makes his contention good, though there is something amusing in the way in which this same bore of the gun and the weight of the charge is unfailingly specified on nearly every page, often in the very midst of the most exciting narrative. The work covers nearly all the large animals which form the prey of the sportsman in almost every part of the world. The classification of the animals is that of a sportsman, and not of a naturalist, as is shown in the comprehension of nearly all the larger cats, after the lion and tiger, under the head of leopards or panthers, and also in the treatment of the Cervidæ. On the other hand, there is never any difficulty in determining, in any special instance, what the species is that is under discussion.

As might be expected of such a veteran sportsman, the book fairly teems with anecdote, and the experiences recounted are often dramatic in the extreme. Literary style there is none except that inherent in straightforward narrative, with here and there a touch of rather grim humor. There is no taint of exaggeration, of self-glorification, or attempt at "writing up" the situations involved. If the writer errs at all, it is on the side of brevity and laconicism. The military manner pervades it all. In dealing with his chosen topic we regard this as an extraordinary virtue, for it alone preserves so large a collection of hunter's stories from the tediousness which is the inevitable result of the continuous use of superlatives.

The book is not only very interesting for the general reader if taken in moderate doses, but contains a vast number of facts which the student of wild animals will prize as a contribution of real value to the biography of the creatures referred to. Especially is this the case with the less-known animals, such as the hippopotamus and the Indian buffalo. We think no naturalist will lay the book down without learning something new to him and much that he could have learned in no other way. The rapid disappearance of the majority of large game, even in Africa, lends another element of value to Sir Samuel's original observations.

The illustrations by H. Dixon are hardly worthy of the book, either in design or engraving. The boar in the tailpiece at the end appears to have been copied from a mould in ice-cream. In other respects, however, the manufacture is in keeping with the reputation of the publishers.

Longmans' School Geography for North America. London and New York: Longmans & Co.

THIS is one of a series of geographic books which the London house is publishing. It was written by Chisholm for use in England in 1886, and has been revised and rearranged by Leete for use in this country. It is in octavo form, without maps, which will be presented in 'Longmans' New Atlas,' now in preparation. The closing paragraph of the prospectus is much closer to the opinion of the reviewer than such paragraphs usually are: "This text-book adapts itself to pupils of intelligence, and will be highly appreciated by all teachers imbued with a spirit for teaching real geography, not attempting to supersede their functions by dictating the length of the daily tasks or the questions that shall be asked, but furnishing a body of material so selected, arranged, and presented that its perusal is at once pleasurable, suggestive, and of substantial value." This is perfectly true. The description of the United States is novel in omitting special accounts of the several States, and taking together regions of more natural boundaries instead; and the plan works well, although it involves the previous use of a geography especially prepared for the student's own State. The student who uses the book is assumed to be already well acquainted with the State boundaries and the chief towns; he is therefore prepared to consider the actual relations of the natural subdivisions of our country, as here presented. Especial attention is given to the reasons for the location of towns and cities. Local peculiarities characteristic of districts and towns are well selected, and are not so dry as is too often the case in school-books. Thus, of New Orleans, it is said that the streets are four feet lower than high water in the Mississippi, and hence the drainage leads away from the river and not into it; for the same reason the cemeteries there are unique in having no graves, but tombs of stone or brick instead, built above the surface. Scranton and Wilkes-Barre are in a valley so rich in coal that six great railways have forced their way into it. Various styles of type are employed to emphasize the difference between headings and details; population is indicated partly by size of type, and also by numbers in parentheses giving the round thousands, according to recent censuses.

The book opens with fifty pages of physical geography, from and to which frequent references are made by foot-notes. There are, indeed, too many such notes. The introduction is good, but it is more distinctly English than the rest, and it is clearly not the special province of the authors, being more open to criticism than the remainder of the book. For example, there is a vagueness about the treatment of certain topics which one may always use as tests in geography: neap tides are described as "very low tides," which every scholar must misunderstand; the belt of high atmospheric pressure around the tropics is in-

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correctly ascribed to the crowding of the equatorial overflow on the converging meridians; and the effect of the earth's rotation in deflecting the winds is very imperfectly explained. This, with more of the same kind, shows a less critical acquaintance with physical than with descriptive geography. The illustrations are varied and generally well selected; but some of the geological diagrams are much below the general standard of the book, and nearly all the wood-cuts show signs of age. There is a very good index, filling thirteen pages.

As to the adaptation of the book to our schools, there seem to be slight traces of foreign origin that could be removed to advantage. In the physical introduction, the examples might be more often American. London has an undue prominence in the latitude diagrams. Slight lapses from complete accuracy occasionally appear in the long chapter on the physical features of the United States: the folded beds of Pennsylvania are said to be mostly of the carboniferous period; Niagara is said to plunge over the northern edge of the Appalachian plateau, and a curious confusion of geological dates is found in the association of the glacial confluence of our great lakes with the vastly more ancient submergence that furnished the salt deposits of Michigan and New York; but these, again, are aside from the directly geographical topics. On the whole, the book is remarkably successful—the most successful attempt that we have seen to prepare a geography for our schools on the basis of a foreign original, and much better adapted to use in this country than some of the other publications by the same house.

From Yellowstone Park to Alaska. By Francis C. Sessions. Welch, Fracker Co. 1890. 8vo, 186, ix. pp.

From the Land of the Midnight Sun to the Volga. By Francis C. Sessions. Welch, Fracker Co. 1890. 8vo, 167, xi. pp.

The Wonders of Alaska. By Alexander Badlam. San Francisco: The Bancroft Co. 1890. 2d ed. 8vo, x., 148 pp.

MR. SESSIONS'S books appear to be the private notes or correspondence of an average traveller, printed without proper editing, and with an astonishing number of typographical errors of the most obvious kind. Their interest can hardly extend beyond the circle of the author's family and friends, and in matters of fact inaccuracies are too numerous to be specified. A serious review of such publications is hardly called for, and they may be dismissed with the remark that the value of the contents is in inverse ratio to the elegance of the printing and binding.

Mr. Badlam's volume is evidently intended for the use of the summer tourist on the now fashionable Alaskan excursions. For this it is well fitted. The illustrations are excellent—nothing equal to them has appeared in any of the recent publications on the Territory; and the subjects selected for illustration are fresh and unhackneyed. The text contains nothing novel, but is a fairly interesting presentation of the data required for such a guide-book, and it is provided with an excellent series of small maps covering the route of the steamers. For the entertainment of his readers Mr. Badlam has included some stories, such as the account of the apocryphal "Silent City" and other visions alleged to have been detected in the mirages about the Muir Glacier, as well as certain references to living mammoths in the interior of the country, which as hoaxes are hardly amusing enough to have been embodied in a book, while it is not within the range of probability that any one should take them seriously.

Notas de Viaje. (Colombia y Estados Unidos de América). Por Salvador Camacho Roldan. Bogotá: Librería Colombiana. 1890.

IT is not often that we are called upon to see ourselves as we appear in the Spanish-American mirror. Guillermo Prieto has written at length of his travels in the United States, and more recently a volume has appeared from the pen of Ireneo Paz on the same subject; if there have been other works of the sort lately issued by a South American publisher, the total lack of literary commerce between the two halves of our hemisphere has prevented any notice of them in this country. Now comes Señor Camacho Roldan with a substantial addition to the meagre list, a book of 900 pages, more than one-third of which, however, is taken up with his journeyings in Colombia and the Isthmus. His route in the United States led him from New Orleans to Chicago, St. Louis, Cincinnati, Pittsburgh, New York, and Washington. His chapters are very largely filled with an account of his itinerary, historical matter drawn from the most obvious sources, a mass of commercial and industrial statistics, together with some remarks on our larger questions of the day. The whole betrays more the commendable industry of a compiler and reader of our daily press than serious study and close observation. Our social life, our public and private manners, our municipal governments, our literature, are matters scarcely touched upon. The author, it is true, faithfully serves notice in his preface that his book will be found to contain only superficial and random notes, so that it would not be fair to judge him by too high a standard. What he writes about us is conceived in all too admiring a spirit, and the fear will lurk in the breast of the judicious reader that if he had known us better, he would not have praised us at just the points he did.

As bearing on questions at present much discussed, we may cite his opinion that our manufacturers who are seeking a market in South America are indulging in a "false hope" if they think they will be given a sentimental preference over their European competitors. The author also believes that the Pan-American Congress principally served to emphasize the blindly selfish nature of our public policy. In Pittsburgh he was shown articles of glassware the price of which seemed to him very high; some months afterwards he saw the same things in Paris, exhibited as American products, and priced at surprisingly lower figures. This may perhaps be written in Spanish without being called a "lie" or a "conspiracy."

Far West Sketches. By Jessie Benton Frémont. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 1890.

MRS. FRÉMONT'S vivacious and familiar sketches of incidents in her strange life have hitherto been welcomed, and in the present little volume she does not fall at all short of the first requisite in books of the sort, the power to be entertaining. Here she has collected a few incidents of California life when she was living near a mine which her husband had charge of, in the days before civilization had been established in the region. The most exciting adventure is that in which "the League" attempted to "jump" the Colonel's mine, but were foiled by a young English boy staying with the family, who stole away on his pony over the mountains and brought help from a neighboring community and established communication with the Governor. In this the element of disorder and danger is vividly and simply brought out; but more pleasing sketches illustrate the womanly character of the author, who made a home in that wild country which was a source of benevolence and an example to all about. Her accounts of the Christmas feast, of the camping out, with the warning from the friendly Indian chief of immediate danger, or the escape from the Chinese village on the gallop; and in particular the power with which Mrs. Frémont seizes the salient traits of individuals and photographs them on the page—are excellent. The poor whites, the wild Kentuckian, the faithful servant, the whole varied human nature that gathered into every eddy of the first invasion of California, are set before us as they were in a single typical settlement.

The truth of such plain and unpretending reminiscences is worth much to the reader who would know something of the ways of Western life, and Mrs. Frémont is herself an example of what hold a woman had on the heart and respect of the poor women and rough men. The whole volume, though small, is a large chapter out of real life on new and most interesting terms. Perhaps we should add that students of "thought transference" will find a case here in which Mrs. Frémont believes she had a message from her husband at a critical moment of his career, when he was thousands of miles away.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, C. F. Richard Henry Dana. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
American Sonnets, Selected and Edited by T. W. Higginson and E. H. Bigelow. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Anstey, F. Voces Populi. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Atkins, F. A. Moral Muscle. Fleming H. Revell. 50 cents.
Austin, Jane G. Dr. Le Baron and His Daughters. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Balch, Elizabeth. Glimpses of Old English Homes. Macmillan & Co. $3.50.
Bissell, Mary Taylor. Household Hygiene. N. D. C. Hodges.
Bouvet, Marguerite. Sweet William. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Brackett, J. R. The Negro in Maryland. Baltimore: N. Murray.
Breton, J. The Life of an Artist: An Autobiography. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Century Magazine (May-October), 1890. The Century Co.
Clark, Prof. W. Savonarola: His Life and Times. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Cleveland, Cynthia E. His Honor; or, Fate's Mysteries. The American News Co. $1.50.
Coffin, C. C. Freedom Triumphant. Harper & Bros.
Cordner, Elizabeth P. Christmas Stories and March Violets. Boston: George H. Ellis.
Cunningham, H. S. Wheat and Tares. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Du Bois, Constance Goddard. Martha Carey. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Edersheim, Rev. A. Jesus the Messiah. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $7.50.
Everitt, W. Thine, Not Mine. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Fasnacht, G. E. Macmillan's Course of German Composition. Macmillan & Co. 65 cents.
Gladstone, W. E. The Impregnable Rock of Holy Scripture. Philadelphia: John D. Wattles. $1.
Glazebrook, M. G. Lessons from the Old Testament. London: Percival & Co.
Goldsmith, O. The Vicar of Wakefield. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Gomme, G. L. The Handbook of Folk-Lore. London: David Nutt.
Griswold, W. M. Travel. 2 vols. Cambridge: W. M. Griswold.
Gronlund, L. Our Destiny. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Gwatkin, F., and Shuckburgh, Evelyn S. Aeschines. Macmillan & Co. $1.10.
Haggard, H. R., and Lang, A. The World's Desire. Harper & Bros.
Hall, H. S., and Stevens, F. H. A Text-Book of Euclid's Elements. Macmillan & Co. 70 cents.
Harper's Young People. 1890. Harper & Bros.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. Flower de Hundred. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.
Hoyt, D. L. Handbook of Historic Schools of Painting. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.
Hunter, W. W. Rulers of India: Warren Hastings. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Huntington, J. V. The Forest. P. O'Shea.
Jastrow, M. A Dictionary of the Targumim, the Talmud Babli and Yerushalmi, and the Midrashic Literature. Part iv. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Jewett, Sarah Orne. Strangers and Wayfarers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Johnson, Elizabeth Winthrop. Two Loyal Lovers. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.
Johnston, R. M. Widow Guthrie. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Kingston, W. H. G. A Yacht Voyage round England. Fleming H. Revell. $2.

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Kirk, Ellen Olney. Walford. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Körner, G. Das Deutsche Element in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika. New ed. E. Steiger & Co.
Lang, A. The Red Fairy Book. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Lockyer, N. The Meteoritic Hypothesis. Macmillan & Co. $5.25.
Lowell, J. R. Writings. Vols. V., VI. Political Essays; Literary and Political Addresses. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Mary, J. The Shadow of Roger Laroque. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Masson, D. The Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. Vol. XIII. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black.
Matthews, G. F. Manual of Logarithms. Macmillan & Co. $1.60.
Moore, T. The Epicurean. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Morris, C. Civilization: An Historical Review of its Elements. 2 vols. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.
Munro, J. Pioneers of Electricity. London: The Religious Tract Society. $1.40.
Murray, W. H. H. How John Norton the Tranper Kept his Christmas. Boston: DeWolfe, Fiske & Co.
Ober, F. A. The Knockabout Club in North Africa Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.50.
Ogden, Ruth. A Loyal Little Red-Coat. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $2.
Oman, C. W. C. A History of Greece. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Pfleiderer, Prof. O. The Development of Theology in Germany since Kant. Macmillan & Co. $2.75.
Pocket Volume of Selections from the Poetical Works of Robert Browning. Scribner & Welford. 40 cents.
Reade, C. Christie Johnstone. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Representative Sonnets by American Poets, Selected by Charles H. Crandall. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Riis, J. A. How the Other Half Lives. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Robinson, W. C. Introduction to Our Early English Literature. London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co.
Robinson, W. C. Shakspere: The Man and His Mind. Buffalo: C. W. Moulton.
Rogers, W. T. A Manual of Bibliography. Scribner & Welford. $1.75.
Sand, G. The Gallant Lords of Bois-Doré. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.
Sand, George. The Haunted Pool. With 14 etchings by Rudaux. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Savings of Cardinal Newman. New York: Catholic Publication Society.
Schmauk, T. E. The Voice in Speech and Song. John B. Alden. 75 cents.
Scott, F. N. The Principles of Style. Ann Arbor: Register Publishing Co.
Seawell, Molly Elliot. Little Jarvis. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Shaw, W. A. Materials for an Account of the Provincial Synod of the County of Lancaster. Manchester: Manchester Press Co.
Shaw, W. A. Minutes of the Manchester Presbyterian Classis. Part I. Manchester, Eng.: The Cheatham Society.
Sidney, Sir P. Certain Sonnets from Arcadia. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Sime, J. Geography of Europe. Macmillan & Co. 80 cents.
Smalley, G. W. London Letters, and Some Others. 2 vols. Harper & Bros.
Sociology. Boston: James H. West. $2.
Spalding, J. L. Education and the Higher Life. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Stahl, P. J. Maroussia. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Stearns, L. F. The Evidence of Christian Experience. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
St. Nicholas. Vol. XVII. The Century Co.
Stoker, B. The Snake's Pass. Harper & Bros. 40 cents.
Stretton, Hesba. The Doctor's Dilemma. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Sullivan, G. H. Memoir of Algernon Sydney Sullivan. New York: Brentano's. $1.
Sumner, Prof. W. G. Alexander Hamilton. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents.
Sybel, H. von. The Founding of the German Empire by William I. Vol. I. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $2.
Taylor, S. A System of Sight-Singing from the Established Musical Notation. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
The Bookworm. 3d series. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
The Century Dictionary. Vol. IV. The Century Co.
The Journal of Sir Walter Scott, from the Original MS. at Abbotsford. 2 vols. Harper & Bros.
Thomas, Bertha. Famous or Infamous. United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Thompson, D. G. The Philosophy of Fiction in Literature. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Thwaites, R. G. The Story of Wisconsin. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Tolstoi, L. The Romance of Marriage. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Tolstoi, L. Work While Ye Have the Light. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Tolstoi, L. Work while Ye Have the Light. The Waverley Co. 25 cents.
Totten, C. A. L. Joshua's Long Day. New Haven: The Our Race Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Toussaint-Sampson, Mme. A Parisian in Brazil. Boston: James H. Earle. $1.
Turner, Edith S. By Whose Hand? United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Tupper, F. A. Echoes from Dream-Land. Shelburne Falls, Mass.
Upton, Mrs. Harriet T. Our Early Presidents, Their Wives and Children. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Valentine, Mrs. The Old Fairy Tales. Frederick Warne & Co. $3.
Van Rensselaer, Mrs. John King. The Devil's Picture-Books. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.
Verne, J. Cæsar Cascabel. Cassell Publishing Co. $2.50.
Vincent, J. H. A Study in Pedagogy. Wilbur B. Ketcham. 60 cents.
Wallace, W. Life of Arthur Schopenhauer. A. Lovell & Co. 40 cents.
Warden, Florence. Missing—A Young Girl. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
White, Margaret E. A Sketch of Chester Harding, Artist, drawn by his own hand. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.

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